

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

The development and evolution of peace education in English Secondary Schools from post World War 1 - 2010

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The Development and Evolution of Peace Education in English Secondary Schools from Post World War 1 – 2010

By

Charles Harlock

October 2014



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April 2014

***A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the University's requirements for the
Degree of Master of Philosophy***

Dedication

To Angie, for always being there, thank you.

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To all of those who have given freely of their time and resources, providing detail and background that was not available elsewhere.

To our two daughters and their families for their love, patience and understanding during the past six years.

Abstract

This thesis examines how peace education in English secondary schools has evolved and developed and charts the progress of peace education alongside the ever changing English education system since the end of World War 1.

It details the fundamental changes in English educational thinking in the 1970s – 90s that demanded a return to ‘traditional’ teaching methods and the introduction of a market orientated structure. It examines how this appeared to totally negate the work of organisations such as the New Education Fellowship, Council for World Citizenship, The One World Trust, the World Studies Trust and the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations that provided both support and materials to teachers who wanted to teach peace education in schools.

The thesis examines the evolution of peace education with the introduction of Citizenship Education as a National Curriculum subject and compares the aims and content of the citizenship curriculum with that of a detailed peace education curriculum advanced by the International Schools Association. It shows that citizenship education in the National Curriculum very closely follows the aims, content and teaching methods of peace education in the 1980s -1990s.

This Thesis provides a detailed and comprehensive history of the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools since the end of World War 1, giving a greater understanding of the relationships between the various strands of educational philosophy, pedagogy and praxis and how they were fundamental to the development of peace education in English schools from the end of World War 1. It will show how peace education can be embedded in a formal, structured education system and how it is possible for the content and tenets of peace education to be taught without any reference to the ‘political’ connotation of the phrase.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AC	The United World College of the Atlantic
APPGWG	All Party Parliamentary Group for World Government
ASCD	Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
CAME	Conference of Allied Ministers of Education
CAQDAS	Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CEWC	Council for Education in World Citizenship
CND	Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament
DES	Department for Education and Skills
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
EAC	Education Advisory Committee
EAZ	Education Action zones
EiC	Excellence in Cities
EPIU	Education for Peace and International Understanding
ERA	Education Reform Act 1988
HMI	Her Majesties Inspectorate
IBE	International Bureau of Education
ICIC	International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation
IIIC	International Institute for Intellectual Cooperation
KWIC	Key Word in Context
LEA	Local Education Authority
LNU	The League of Nations Union
MAD	Mutually Assured Destruction
NC	National Curriculum
NC	National Curriculum
NEF	The New Education Fellowship
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education
OWT	One World Trust
PEN	Peace Education Network
PSHE	Personal Social Health Education
SAT	Standard Assessment Task
SCAA	School Curriculum and Assessment Authority
SCCE	Schools Council for Curriculum and Examination
SEAL	Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning
TfP	Teachers for Peace
UN	United Nations Organisation
UNA	United Nations Association
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WCCI	World Council for Curriculum and Instruction
WEF	World Education Fellowship

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Chapter: 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction.

This thesis is an exploration of the evolution and development of peace education as a content of learning in English secondary schools from 1900 to 2010.

This thesis will set out to demonstrate that peace education in English secondary schools in the 1970's and 1980s was influenced by the work of organisations both inside and alongside the formal education structure and that the apparent absence of peace education from the mid-1990s was not all that it appeared.

The thesis will examine the simultaneous development of the philosophy, principles and practice of the New Education movement and the evolution of the belief that the global society needed to learn to live in harmony. It presupposed that the learning process should take place in schools and would encompass the principles of world citizenship through the influence of peace education.

1.2 A problem of definition and placement.

One of the first problems in placing this research project in context to education in general was to find a working definition of peace education that would frame the research, because as Salomon says

“...too many profoundly different kinds of activities taking place in an exceedingly wide array of contexts are all lumped under the same category label of ‘peace education’ as if they belong together.”¹

In the early stages of my research I found considerable claim and counter claim for different peace education pedagogies; human rights education, conflict resolution, development education to name but a few as being ‘peace education’. At first I viewed

¹ Salomon, G. (2002). “The Nature of Peace Education: Not All Programs Are Created Equal” in G. Salomon and B. Nevo (eds.) Peace education: The concept, principles and practices in the world. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. p.3

these as spokes of a wheel with peace education at the hub but came to appreciate that this implied a fixed, rigid relationship that in practice was not the case. It also implied that if one spoke broke then the wheel would collapse. However I came to see that, over the period covered, each individual principle was constantly evolving both within its defined area and in relation to the others but what was obvious was that they all shared a common aim:

“Within the wide range of peace education programs, a common general objective can be found. They all aim to foster changes that will make the world a better, more humane place. The goal is to diminish, or even eradicate, a variety of human ills ranging from injustice, inequality, prejudice...”²

So I came to the conclusion that a better illustration would be one representing an atom. The dense central core (peace education) is surrounded by a group of electrons (the pedagogies) that can change their relationship to the centre depending upon their state.

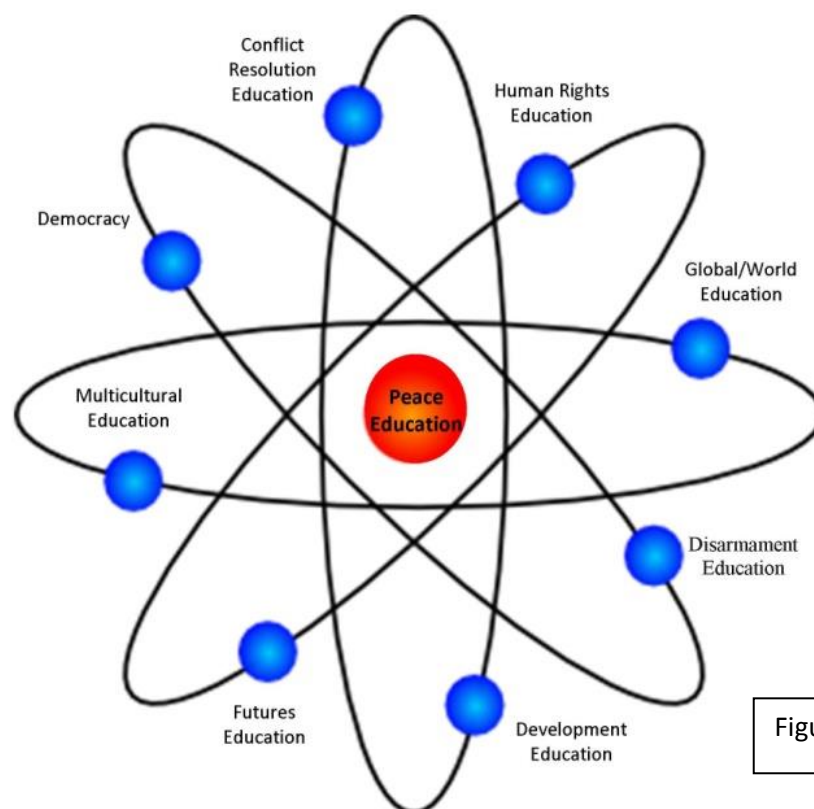


Figure 1 Peace Education

If one or more electrons are removed then the structure readjusts to keep the core central and the structure stable. Using this analogy then a reasonable definition of

² Bar-Tal, D. (2002). “The Elusive Nature of Peace Education” in G. Salomon and B. Nevo (eds.) Peace education: The concept, principles and practices in the world. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. p.28

peace education for this thesis would be one that encapsulates this relationship. This can be found in the definition used by the Hague Appeal for Peace at Hague Appeal for Peace conference in May 1999 that saw the launch of The Global Campaign for Peace Education.

“Peace education can generally be defined as a “participatory holistic process that includes teaching for and about democracy and human rights, nonviolence, social and economic justice, gender equality, environmental sustainability, disarmament, traditional practices, international law, and human security.””³

I have therefore adopted the principle of this definition so that peace education is at the heart of the structure and is a combination of the various other pedagogies.

For the purpose of clarity I would also distinguish between peace education and peace studies. For this thesis I have placed peace studies in higher education, at Universities, Colleges and Research Institutes. Peace education is the embodying of peace studies into the formal education system. The problem is that in the 1980s -1990s in particular the two terms were often interchanged by those outside of the field and this should be borne in mind when reading chapters 7 and 8.

1.3 The scope of this research project.

This thesis will follow the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools and is focussed around the work of a number of organisations as well as important changes in the formal education structure.

The Education Acts of 1944 and 1988 were both reforming acts that changed the landscape of secondary education in their time. The 1944 Act introduced free education for all pupils, kept the age of 11 as the break point for children to move into secondary education and raised the school leaving age to 15 years. It introduced three levels of secondary education, grammar schools, secondary technical schools and secondary modern schools. This oversaw the creation of comprehensive schools that

³ Accessed at <http://www.haguepeace.org/>

were intended to combine the three strands that, by the 1980s, formed the majority of secondary schools in England. The period after the 1944 Act also saw the spread of expansion of the view of education that was centred on the needs and capabilities of the child. Under the title of New Education, it was led by a small group of progressive educationalists and free-thinkers, amongst others Beatrice Ensor, Maria Montessori, Adolphe Ferrière, Ovide Decroly and others that had in common a philosophical dissatisfaction with the mainstream educational tenets of the time.

The 1970s and 1980s saw the gradual change in English educational thinking that called for a return to more traditional teaching methods and the introduction of a market orientated structure where parent rather than teachers and educationalists would influence the way that schools are managed. This all culminated in the 1988 Education Reform Act that imposed a National Curriculum and Standard Assessment Tests for all pupils at regular intervals in their education. These would be published in national league tables that would allow parents to judge the quality of education their children were receiving compared to local and national levels. It also placed the control of schools firmly in the hands of central government rather than the Local Authorities and put school finances in the hands of the school governors and Head Teachers.

This latter revolution in secondary schooling appeared to totally negate the work of various organisations such as the Council for World Citizenship, The One World Trust, the World Studies Trust and the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations all of which had been influencing the subject matter of the curriculum with peace education content and principles. These organisations had provided both support and materials to teachers that wanted to teach peace education in their schools.

The thesis will then examine the effect on peace education teaching with the introduction of Citizenship Education as a compulsory National Curriculum subject in 2002. It will compare the aims and content of the citizenship curriculum with that of a detailed peace education curriculum advanced by the International Schools Association that was developed by the International Education System Pilot Project

which set out to explore the feasibility of creating an international education system that promoted global citizenship.

1.4 The Research Questions posed.

Before 1918 the peace movement in the United Kingdom was relatively low key but the massive carnage and the effective loss of a generation of young men brought about a fundamental change in public feelings about the belief that the only way that a nation could have influence in the wider world was to invest in military forces and arms. The period after the war saw the emergence of organisations opposed to the growth of militarism such as the Peace Pledge Union and the League of Nations Union. The latter was by far the largest peace organisation in Britain by the mid-1920s. Unlike the Peace Pledge Union it was more internationalist than pacifist which was probably the main reason for its appeal to the public at large.

The advent of the Second World War saw the peace movement as a whole lose ground only to re-emerge after the war with a new focus, nuclear disarmament.

So the first research question is:

“How did the major changes in educational theory and practice assist the growth of peace education in English secondary schools after the Second World War?”

This question provides the framework and background for the following two questions.

The 1944 Education Act provided a springboard for fundamental changes in secondary education in England that encompassed new pedagogy which gave teachers greater freedom over the content of their teaching. By making secondary education compulsory for all children and by raising the school leaving age to 14 years (later to be 15 years) it would usher in an era of experiment and growth as anticipated by the Norwood Report:

“The aim would be to offer a general grounding and to awaken interest in many aspects of life and citizenship ... It is evident that, if such general education is to

spring from the actual and real interests of the pupils...the utmost freedom must exist as regards curriculum and its treatment, which can be determined only in the light of the special circumstances of the school. We may add that we look forward to much fruitful growth and many experiments in this field of education.”⁴

The second research question is:

What were the factors that saw the 1970s – 1980s being described as the ‘golden years’ of peace education in English secondary schools?

To many practitioners of the time the 1970s and 1980s were the ‘golden period’ of peace education in schools. Non-governmental organisations (NGO) such as the One World Trust (OWT) and the Council for Education in World Citizenship (CEWC) along with the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examination (SCCE) encouraged the teaching profession to accept the aims of peace education by providing training and materials suitable for use in the classroom. Many teachers joined and were active within the Peace Education Network (PEN) and the Teachers for Peace (TfP) movements and a significant number of Local Education Authorities (LEA) were receptive to the introduction of a peace education curriculum in their schools.

This leads to the third and final question which is in two parts:

What were the effects of the New Right educational philosophy on peace education in English secondary schools and did peace education succumb to the pressure or did it re-emerge in a different guise?

As I have briefly outlined above there was an increasing demand for the reformation of educational practices in England from the mid-1970s onward. Driven by the New Right movement and encouraged by the election of successive governments this saw the introduction of a market driven educational philosophy. To many, the changes brought about by this appeared to signal the demise of peace education in English secondary schools.

⁴ Board of Education (1943): ‘Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools’, Report of the Committee of the Secondary School Examinations Council. London. HMSO. p21.

However with New Labour taking power in 1997 there came the introduction of citizenship education as a compulsory curriculum subject. Launched in 2002, the subject placed an emphasis on giving children the skills, values, attitudes and confidence to develop as responsible citizens capable of making a positive, effective contribution to society. It required schools to become more aware and involved in the wider community and placed an emphasis on children taking part in community based projects. It placed the emphasis on group work, discussion and debate and primary teaching methods and allowed teachers to cover those subjects that previously had been considered by the New Right as too political and subversive to be placed in the hands of teachers.

1.5 Key areas of research and their contribution to a wider history of peace education in English secondary schools.

Two decades, the 1970s and 1980s, can be seen as a defining period for peace education in English secondary schools. There were forces both outside and within the formal education system that promoted the vision that for the world to enter an extended period of peaceful co-existence children must be allowed to discover their rights and responsibilities as citizens of the world and the part they could play in promoting peace and justice. The decades following up to 2010 saw the declining authority of the NGOs and the greater influence of government in taking this forward through the advent of Citizenship Education in the curriculum.

In order to answer the questions posed above and explore the background to the forces at play this thesis delves into the role of the various NGOs involved and the actions of politicians, educationalists and teachers in playing their part in the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools. It has entailed a detailed study of various archive materials both of the NGOs involved and government records. This has been referenced with the personal recollections and records of some of those involved at the time and analysis of the literature produced by them. Combining these sources has led to a comprehensive historical record of the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools. There are existing histories of strands of peace education

that were active, for example both Richardson and Hicks have written on the history of World Studies in the 1970s and 1980s⁵ and Heater detailed the early years of the CEWC up to 1984.⁶ This research project takes this work a step further by reviewing the evolution of peace education from the 1980s to 2010

The research project reviews the evolution of peace education alongside the political and social changes that were taking place in society in the 20th Century and the fundamental step changes that took place in the education of children in secondary schools in England. In the peace education sector much emphasis and credit has been placed on the work of the NGOs in influencing the educational profession to promote peace education in the curriculum. This narrow but understandable viewpoint gives little, if any credit to the role played by government, particularly in the early 21st Century in promoting the aims and principles of peace education in the secondary curriculum.

In undertaking this research project I have endeavoured to weave the strands together, give a wider view of the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools and in doing so identified several key areas for study.

The first of these were the changes in educational policy and the impact that they had on the manner in which they affected not only what was taught in schools (the curriculum) but the methods and principles of teaching (the pedagogy).

The second was the function of various influential NGOs in driving forward changes in teaching philosophies and the wider content of peace education under the auspices of World Citizenship and World Studies.

⁵ See for example: (a) Hicks, D. (1991): *The Centre for Peace Studies 1980-89*. Westminster Studies in Education. Vol. 14 pt.1 pp 37-49. (b) Hicks, D. (1990): *The World Studies 8-13 Project: a short history 1980-89*. Westminster Studies in Education. vol. 13. pp 61-80 and (c) Richardson, R. (1979) *World Studies in the 1970s – A Review of Progress and Tensions*. World Studies Journal Vol. 1 No 1. pp. 5-15.

⁶ Heater, D. (1984): Peace through Education: The Contribution of the Council for Education in World citizenship. London Falmer Press.

Next were the roles of informal teacher organisations, some LEAs and schools in creating courses of peace education that went further than just the issues of conflict resolution and nuclear disarmament that were prevalent at the time.

Included in both of these strands would be examination of the censure heaped upon them by the government and its supporters in the education establishment.

Finally there is the influence of the introduction of citizenship in the secondary curriculum that embraces many of the aims and content of the wider peace education definition discussed earlier in this chapter.

1.6 Thesis construct

Following this opening chapter there are two chapters that provide the framework for the research project, then five chapters developing the various histories involved. The penultimate chapter is a single case study and is followed by the concluding chapter.

Chapter Two begins by placing peace education within the context of the education process. To do this it examines and discusses the literature surrounding the early educational thinking of Rousseau and Froebel that influenced the thoughts of 20th Century educationalists such as Dewey, Montessori and Freire. It then looks at the work of Hicks, Reardon and other peace educationists in the light of this and the developing work in peace research by Galtung and others.

Chapter Three considers the various research methodologies that could be used in obtaining and analysing the data acquired and devising a framework within which the data sits. In particular it discusses the possible tools available for such analysis, the strengths and weakness of conducting a historical research project and the need to ensure that the data obtained from one source is, wherever possible verified by data from a separate source.

Chapter Four provides an outline of the development of English educational policy from 1944 to 2010. It places the progression of political thinking and legislation on

secondary education within a wider framework of social and economic change. It locates the development of peace education within this evolving landscape.

Chapter Five traces some of the important organisations that promoted forms of peace education in English secondary schools from 1900. It examines their influence in the areas of teaching practice and philosophy and the way in which they laid the foundations for peace education. It shows how they evolved and contributed to peace education in the 21st century.

Chapter Six considers two organisations/movements that continued to develop teaching methods that concentrated on the child rather than the teacher and also looked to widen the curriculum beyond the usual set subjects. The first, a government education organisation the SCCE was charged with reforming the curriculum and teaching methods and instigated a series of projects aimed at this. This would have a direct impact on the peace education projects of the World Studies programme, instigated by the OWT and carried forward by the influential World Studies 8 – 13 Project.

Chapter Seven studies the continuing evolution of peace education through the attempts made by some LEAs to place peace education in the formal curriculum and at the contributions of some of the more influential teacher led peace education organisations. It also explores the role of the government and media in the attacks made on the study of peace education in the 1980s.

Chapter Eight considers the changes in the education system at the end of the 1980s and early 1990s, in particular the Education Reform Act (ERA) (1988) and the effect this had on teachers, teaching practice and the consequences for the teaching of peace education at that time. It then details the introduction and development of Citizenship Education as a curriculum subject and the relationship between its content and that of peace education as defined in this thesis.

Chapter Nine is a single case study that reviews the manner and content of short term peace education projects in the current education climate. It highlights the negative

effect that the lack of continual funding can have on the projects and possible benefits that could be achieved if they were continued.

1.7 Potential for future research.

This research project has several limitations that could provide the potential for further research:

- As set out earlier in this chapter it has been limited to the educational structure in England and not the UK or elsewhere in the world. This is because with the varying stages of devolution of the UK there are differing educational arrangements in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.
- It is limited to the secondary education age range of 11-16 years and does not consider the work done in the primary sector such as Personal, Social, Health Education (PSHE) and the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL).
- It has focussed on the evolution of Citizenship Education as the primary strand of secondary school peace education. It has not considered sectors such as Development Education, Human rights education or Multicultural Education and their possible contribution to peace education.
- It does not make comparisons with other countries with a similar educational structure and interest in peace education. One such country could be New Zealand where the educational system has had a longstanding relationship with that of the UK.
- It does not make any attempt to see whether the English model of citizenship education and its connection to peace education is comparable with that of other countries or whether it would be beneficial to countries that have recently exited conflict situations.

It does however, through the detailed examination of the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools, the role that NGOs and government can and did play, provide a foundation for carrying out further research in these areas.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

“Education is not merely a matter of training the mind. Training makes for efficiency, but it does not bring about completeness. A mind that has been merely trained is the continuation of the past, and such a mind can never discover the new. That is why, to find out what is right education, we will have to enquire into the whole significance of living”.¹

The aim of this Thesis is to chart the evolution and development of peace education in English secondary schools from the period just after the end of World War 1 until 2010 and so this chapter will critically examine literature produced by peace educationalists during that period. The start point of post-World War 1 was chosen because when discussing the evolution of peace education in the English educational system the end of this war brought about wide-ranging and powerful support for a new approach to international understanding and cooperation. The role that formal education could play in this was crucial to its progression. As we will see in later chapters The League of Nations and a number of influential UK nongovernmental organizations worked together developing these ideas, particularly through the establishment of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, that was the predecessor of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

There was little progress in the development of peace education prior to World War 1 for two main reasons. The first was that even in the western world, education was primarily a privilege of the elite and secondly manner in which children were taught maintained the status quo, in that children were taught to accept what they were told rather than to question the validity of the content. It is hardly surprising then that the growing peace movement that was reflected in the Universal Peace Congresses that ran from June 1889 to September 1914 regularly discussed peace and the role of education but not peace education. It follows from this then that it is also not

¹ Krishnamurti (1969): Education and the Significance of Life. London. Victor Gollancz. p.13

surprising that there is little or no literature from this time concerning peace education.

However there is more to peace education than just its content. The strength of peace education also evolves in the manner in which it is taught and as we will see in this chapter and those following it from the mid-1800s onwards there was a gathering of momentum in the thinking that children should be encouraged to question, discuss and debate the social and political environment in which they lived. This chapter and the following ones examine this movement and the role in which it played in establishing peace education in English schools after World War 1.

2.2 Peace and Education

I will look in more detail at what is meant by the term 'Peace Education' and its role and place within the educational system.

To be able to do that we need to begin by placing peace education within the context of the education process and so I intend to begin by examining the two words 'Peace' and 'Education', two simple words with instant connotations when we use them in our daily language so surely not that difficult to define when used together?

As peace education is a sub-set of the total education process then it seems appropriate to examine what we mean by 'education' as the start of that process.

Taking 'educate' first then the Collins Concise English Dictionary defines it as:

educate vb. 1. (also intr.) to impart knowledge by formal instruction to (a pupil); teach. 2. to provide schooling for. 3. to improve or develop (a person, taste, skills, etc.). 4. to train for some particular purpose or occupation.

The first part of this definition certainly sits with my memory of school, sitting in rows, with our arms folded listening to the teacher talk and write on the board at the same

time. Yet a closer look at the origin of the word brings a deeper meaning. 'Educate' is from the Latin root 'educere' which literally translates as 'to draw out, or to 'lead out'

educō (1) -ducere -dūxi -ductum (1) [to draw out, lead out]; of time, [to spend]; milit., [to march troops out]; legal, [to bring before a court of law]; naut., [to take a ship out of port]. (2) [to raise up] (of persons and buildings); 'in astra', [to praise sky-high]. (3) [to bring up, rear].²

Returning to the Collins definition above we can see that it is the third part that takes up this idea of drawing out a person.

3. ...to improve or develop (a person, taste, skills, etc.).

This definition implies that there is an interaction at play between the teacher and the student that involves more than the student being a passive receptacle for the teacher's knowledge base. There is recognition that the student must be able not only to assimilate the knowledge of the teacher but to take it further and develop a new understanding. The student is encouraged to become an active participant in the process, to debate, to argue and project their own comprehension of the subject. It also implies that this takes time; the student needs to be able to absorb and process the information being given to them before they can apply it to the world around them.

'And those who have just learned something do not yet know it, though they string the words together; for it must grow into them, and this takes time'.³

There is also the implied assumption that the student is taking information and data sets from more than one source, putting them together with their own thoughts and expanding that knowledge into a new data set. Progressive educators have continued to develop this concept.

² <http://www.archives.nd.edu/cgi-bin/lookup.pl?stem=edu&ending=cere>

³ Aristotle, Trans: Irwin T, (1999): Nicomachean Ethics. Hackett Publishing Company, Cambridge MA USA, , Book VII, Chapter 3 p. 103

For example in his work *Émile* written in May 1762, Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712 – 1778) stresses the importance of children being able to develop ideas for themselves, to make sense of the world as it could be understood by them at that particular stage in their education. He argues that they should be encouraged to reason their way through a problem or situation and so reach their own conclusions not just relying on the authority of their teacher. Thus, instead of being taught other people's ideas, they are encouraged to draw their own conclusions from their own life experiences.

“This education comes from nature, from men or from things. The inner growth of our organs and faculties is the education of nature, the use we learn to make of our growth is the education of men, what we gain by our experience of our surroundings is the education of things.”⁴

Again in 1826 the German educationalist Friedrich Froebel (1782 - 1852), expanding on Rousseau wrote

“The purpose of education is to encourage and guide man as a conscious, thinking and perceiving being in such a way that he becomes a pure and perfect representation of that divine inner law through his own personal choice; education must show him the ways and meanings of attaining that goal.”⁵

Froebel believed that through play pre-school young children become more conscious of the world around them and their place in it and sought to create environments where creative play using toys such as wooden bricks and balls combined with a series of activities lead children into a discovery process. Whilst his original ideas were concerned with teaching in the family environment they were later developed to meet the demand for special centres for the care and development of children outside of the home, the original ‘kindergarten’.

Both of these writers posit the principle that education is more than just a position of teacher and pupil engaged in a one-way dialogue, they stress that children need to be able to place themselves and their learning within the wider context of the world around them so that the formal knowledge input is expanded and developed by the practical experiences of living.

⁴ Rousseau, J-J: Trans: Foxley, B: *Emile*. The Project Gutenberg Ebook. www.gutenberg.org accessed 12 November 2008.

⁵ Cited in Lilley, I. (ed.) (1967) *Friedrich Froebel: A selection from his writings*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

But in terms of modern educational thinking then it can be argued that the most significant contribution was made by the American John Dewey. He believed that total education is brought about by the demands of the social environment in which a child finds itself and that this is a stimulus for developing the child's latent powers.

This can be summed up in his declaration concerning education 'My Pedagogic Creed' where he said:

"I believe that the individual who is to be educated is a social individual and that society is an organic union of individuals. If we eliminate the social factor from the child we are left only with an abstraction; if we eliminate the individual factor from society, we are left only with an inert and lifeless mass. Education, therefore, must begin with a psychological insight into the child's capacities, interests, and habits. It must be controlled at every point by reference to these same considerations. These powers, interests, and habits must be continually interpreted--we must know what they mean. They must be translated into terms of their social equivalents--into terms of what they are capable of in the way of social service."⁶

In his work 'Democracy and Education'⁷ he addressed the challenge of providing quality public education in a democratic society and calls for the complete renewal of public education, arguing for the combining of vocational and academic studies in education. To this end he sought to develop strategies and methods for training students through formal and informal learning to become socially responsible adults concerned with the rights of others and the common good and to be equipped with the knowledge and technical skills to be productive members of society in the context of our modern industrial world.

For Dewey, education involved taking the pupil into the wider world, involving activities that stimulate thinking and debate and with the aim of assisting individuals to grow into valued members of society. As part of the process so the teacher can also

⁶ Dewey, John (1897) 'My Pedagogic Creed', The School Journal, Volume LIV, Number 3 (January 16, 1897), pages 77-80. - <http://www.infed.org/archives/e-texts/e-dew-pc.htm> accessed 21st July 2007

⁷ Dewey, J. (1916) Democracy and Education. An introduction to the philosophy of education. The Project Gutenberg www.gutenberg.org accessed 8th August 2007

learn from the student, a process of self-education that develops the teacher further and continues the evolution of the educational process.

This thinking is carried forward into modern Western education pedagogy⁸ where the intention is for the student to be placed at the centre of the educational process and where both the learner and the teacher are partners in that process. To achieve this aim the student is encouraged to develop their own style and method of learning, actively engaging with the learning material and taking responsibility for their own learning. They need to see this as something they do for themselves and not something that is done to or for them. For their role in the partnership teachers are expected to actively support the student in every aspect of their learning journey. They should do this by working with other individuals and organisations to organise and manage different learning experiences to provide a learning environment that will motivate students into pushing the boundaries of their learning experience.⁹

“Education should not attempt to shelter our nation’s children from even the harsher controversies of adult life, but should prepare them to deal with such controversies knowledgeably, sensibly, tolerantly and morally.”¹⁰

While recognizing that both learning and occupational skills are essential, there is an additional appreciation of the equal need to develop these within the context of the student’s life surroundings together with an understanding that individuals have a responsibility to live together in harmony within the wider society and to mature as a person, able to act with autonomy, good judgment, and responsibility.

⁸ There are many definitions of pedagogy. Perhaps the simplest is 'The science of teaching' (Oxford English Dictionary). However, the term denotes more than just a set of teaching techniques. Pedagogy encompasses: what is taught/learned, how it is taught or learned and possibly more importantly why it is taught or learned - the underpinning values, philosophy or rationale. The three are intertwined and the 'why' will have a strong influence on what is taught or learned and how.

<http://teachingandlearning.qia.org.uk/tlp/pedagogy/introducingthe1/introducingthe1/index.html>

⁹ HM Govt. Department for Children, Schools and Families: 21st Century Schools: A World-Class Education for Every Child, DCSF Publications. Nottingham, 2008 www.teachernet.gov.uk/publications

¹⁰ Qualifications and Curriculum Authority: Education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy in schools. Final report of the Advisory Group on Citizenship. 22 September 1998(The Crick Report) London p54

So now we can see that there is a function in the education process that goes beyond the requirement for teaching the technical aspects of the '3Rs' but that will relate these basic skills to the wider experiences that children will meet as they grow into adulthood and this role is filled by the concept of Peace Education.

2.3 So what is Peace Education?

The main issue in defining peace education is that it means different things to a large range of people. In one case it is seen as a way in which nation states can carry on their normal activities without the threat of violent conflict where as others view it as an alternative to what they see as a curriculum that perpetuates the concept of violence being seen as normal. To many others in the field, peace education is seen as a catalyst for creating a society where peace and social justice are the right of all.

Some modern definitions of peace education include:

Peace education attempts to sharpen awareness about the existence of conflict between people and within and between nations. It investigates the causes of conflict and violence embedded within the perception, values and opinions of individuals as well as within the social, political and economic structures of society and encourages the search for alternatives including nonviolent solutions and the development of skills necessary for their implementation.¹¹

...the attempt to promote the development of an authentic planetary consciousness that will enable us to function as global citizens and to transform the present human condition by changing the social structures and patterns of thought that have created it. The transformational imperative must be at the center, both in knowledge and values.¹²

An educator teaching peace will use conceptual elements of the philosophy and the processes to structure formal, informal and 'hidden' curricula, including classroom climate, tolerance, respect and those teachable moments that can transform classroom interactions and learning their societies toward peace.¹³

¹¹ Stephanie Ducek – Atlantic College Peace Studies Project – quoted in 'The Report to the Education Committee of the Working Party on the Development of a Curriculum for Peace Education', Nottingham County Council, 1982.

¹² Reardon, B.A. (1988). Comprehensive Peace Education: Educating for Global Responsibility. New York: Teachers College Press.

¹³ Boulding, E. (1990). Building a Global Civic Culture: Education for an Interdependent World. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press

Harris and Morrison¹⁴, in a revision of Harris's original 1984 work, 'Peace Education', set out a series of aims and goals for a peace education programme that include

- Appreciating the richness of the concept of peace
- Addressing fears
- Providing information about security
- Understanding war behaviour
- Developing cultural understanding
- Providing a 'futures' orientation
- Teach peace as a process
- To promote a concept of peace accompanied by social justice
- To stimulate a respect for life
- To manage conflicts non-violently

They also describe peace education as being both a philosophy and a process:

'The philosophy holds values such as trust, caring, empathy, love and a belief in the transformative power of nonviolence. The process involves the skill of problem solving, and its inherent components of listening, dialoguing and seeking mutually beneficial solution.'¹⁵

Hicks¹⁶ sets out a series of objectives for peace that interlink practical skills with personal attitudes, social knowledge together with an understanding of personal values and dispositions.

Hicks' model provides a clear and simple way to describe the complexity of peace education and the problems faced in teaching its components. The familiar categories of knowledge, skills and attitudes – thinking, feeling and doing – are not as distinct as the separate boxes suggest, their close interrelationship for example knowledge affects skills and as our skills increase so they feed information back into our

¹⁴ Harris, I. M. and Morrison, M. L., (2003) Peace Education 2nd edition. Jefferson U.S: McFarland and Co. Inc.

¹⁵ Ibid. p207

¹⁶ Hicks, D. (1988). Education for Peace: Issues, Principles and Practices in the Classroom. London: Routledge.

knowledge base. Knowledge also influences our values within helps refine the development of say, enquiry and critical thinking skills. No one area can be treated in isolation and as each one develops so it impacts on the other two. Hicks shows this as a circle but perhaps a better analogy would be that of an ascending spiral, narrow at the base and gradually widening and rising as more material is added.

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Figure 2 Model adapted from Hicks¹⁷

We can see from all of the above that the problems and challenges that peace education seeks to tackle are multi-faceted and interwoven, so necessarily the nature and content of peace education is just as far-reaching. There is no one defined approach to the content matter of peace education. However, various educational fields deal with aspects of peace education, and their angles are dependent on the specific problems or issues they are seeking to address. Thus, peace education to a greater or lesser extent can be found under the titles of development education, multi-cultural education, world order studies, peace studies, and global citizenship education, amongst others and I will look at some of these related areas later in this paper. At this point in its evolution peace education is a dynamic and changing field,

¹⁷ Adapted from Hicks, D. (ed), (1988) Education for Peace: Issues, Principles and practice in the Classroom. London, Routledge

particularly as it finds form in the more formal and established education systems with their rigidly structured curricula.

To this end, as explained in the introductory chapter this thesis has adopted as its primary definition of peace education that given by the Hague Appeal for Peace at Hague Appeal for Peace conference in May 1999

“Peace education can generally be defined as a ‘participatory holistic process that includes teaching for and about democracy and human rights, nonviolence, social and economic justice, gender equality, environmental sustainability, disarmament, traditional practices, international law, and human security.’”¹⁸

This all-encompassing definition places peace education at the centre of the debate and removes any sense of competition between the various strands vying for eminence.

In the literature on peace education a distinction is normally made between educating *for* peace and educating *about* peace¹⁹. While educating *for* peace deals with the affective way of learning, educating *about* peace deals more with the cognitive side. While educating *for* peace deals with attitudes and a change in behaviour, educating *about* peace has more to do with presentation of information and building of knowledge.

From its origins in the study of the causes of war and its prevention, peace education has evolved into the study of education to counteract all forms and levels of violence and for the creation of a peace system on both the structural and individual level. The content and the methodology of peace education are progressive, promoting egalitarian learning environments, open inquiry and significant learner participation. Peace educators, such as Hicks, Harris and Reardon, all endorse the power of education as a means of transforming society. By creating an awareness of the links between structural violence and direct violence, these educators strive to create a

¹⁸ Accessed at <http://www.haguepeace.org/>

¹⁹ Brock-Utne, B. (1994) The distinction between education about peace and development and value centered education intended to promote them. In: Ray, Douglas (ed): Education for Human Rights. An International Perspective. Studies in Comparative Education. Paris: UNESCO/IBE pp.55-82

means for a peaceful future. Peace education utilizes a broad definition of violence that encompasses war, physical abuse, emotional abuse, torture, homicide, oppression and exploitation. To further distinguish between types of violence, peace researcher Johann Galtung²⁰ developed the concepts of direct violence, structural violence, and cultural violence. Examples of direct violence are acts of war, torture, fighting, gun-violence, physical and emotional abuse. The fundamental ingredient in direct violence is the process of making direct violence a personal act. On the other hand, there is no actor or single act in structural violence. Structural violence, also known as indirect violence, exists as a continuous state of violence due to societal mechanisms such as exploitation, penetration, segmentation, fragmentation, and marginalization. These two forms of violence, direct and indirect, are interconnected, with one often causing the other and vice versa.

From these concepts of violence Galtung went on to evolve the mirror concepts of 'negative' and 'positive' peace that are used by peace educators to illustrate the broad aims of the field. Negative peace refers to the elimination of war and all other forms of direct violence and the main goal of education for negative peace is to develop a population that is informed enough to take action towards achieving a structural peace where overt violence is eliminated and where there is a process of disarmament in place. On the other hand, positive peace focuses on the elimination of all structural and cultural obstacles to peace, and thus the creation of true peace. Positive peace takes concern beyond the end of war and physical violence, addressing the need for justice, equity, democracy and an end to structural violence (oppression, exploitation, racism, poverty, etc...). Specifically, education for positive peace addresses problems of economic deprivation and development, environment and resources, and universal human rights and social justice.²¹ Of these issues, the study of injustice is most central to peace education because, in many ways, the other issues derive from it.

²⁰ Galtung, J. (1969). *Violence, Peace and Peace Research*. Journal of Peace research. Issue 6, Volume 3.

²¹ Reardon, B.A. (1988). *Comprehensive Peace Education: Educating for Global Responsibility*. New York: Teachers College Press.

The approach and contents of peace education significantly depend on the context of the work, the time in which it is taking place, the space in which it is done and the people it is carried out with. Globally speaking, it is very different to work on the same content and skills in Great Britain, than it is for example in Iraq or Afghanistan. In Iraq for example there is a different approach to teaching peace education in the larger urban environments such as Bagdad or Basra where conflict and violence are still commonplace to teaching it in the more rural areas less affected by the war but where there is still suspicion and resentment between communities.

The difference stems from different perceptions of peace. In the environments directly affected by war, peace is still defined through basic security; the freedom to go shopping for example, whilst in environments that were not directly involved in violence, peace is more related to the matters of level of democracy, openness of society, social justice, and discrimination against those with less power.

One very real issue here is that since the fall of the Berlin Wall and the end of the Cold War, the nature of international conflict has changed. Most of the armed conflicts taking place around the world now are not between states (inter-state) but within states (intra-state)²² and few of these involve formal declarations of hostilities between the parties. Most involve 'low level' conflicts either between governments and sectors of their own society or between many groups where it is unclear who is fighting and why or what they are fighting for. They often have an element of 'globalisation' in that the parties are not only fighting for political power but for international recognition that can be used to legitimise their cause. Again some conflicts cross national borders where the states involved are not in conflict with each other but where there are mercenaries or financial and/or military backing from foreign governments supporting the fighting groups. Often the conflicts are less and less about internal grievances but more about access and ownership of natural resources and the wealth derived from them.

²² See Uppsala Conflict Data Program, Uppsala University at www.pcr.uu.se

A more recent development is war focussed on ideology that does not recognise state boundaries, where acts of violence can be carried out world-wide by a relatively small number of protagonists and where the response is ratified by international organisations and involves armed forces from many foreign states fighting within a single sovereign state. For example the Uppsala Conflict Data Program maintained by Uppsala University in Sweden includes the 'War on Terror' in Afghanistan, citing the USA as the 'Government' but notes that at least 16 other countries have provided troops to support the 'Government'.

It has been generally accepted that this modern form of conflict is more disruptive of a country's infrastructure and that the first thing to suffer are the education and health services. It has been estimated that more than half the children not in primary education are in countries either suffering or emerging from conflict.²³ It has also been widely accepted that education is particularly important during periods of armed conflict and that being in school with their friends and teachers provides children with a state of normality and gives teachers the opportunity to help children to develop survival and coping skills as well as being able to monitor their physical and psychological wellbeing. It was also felt that by continuing the education process local societies felt that they had something to protect for the future.²⁴

Recently this view has been challenged. In a report to the United Nations titled 'The Two Faces of Education: Towards a Peacebuilding Education'²⁵ Bush and Saltarelli examined both the positive and negative impacts of education in conflict areas and in their conclusions state:

²³ UNESCO (2004): Education for All Week 19-25 April 2004: Who are Excluded and Why? At <http://www.portal.unesco.org/education/>

²⁴ United Nations (1996). A/51/306 Impact of armed conflict on children – Report of the expert of the Secretary General, Ms Graca Machel. Available at <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N96/219/55/PDF/N9621955.pdf?OpenElement>

²⁵ Bush, K.D. and Saltarelli, D. (2000) The Two Faces of Education in Ethnic Conflict: Towards a Peacebuilding Education For Children. Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre.

- Most obviously: in many conflicts around the world, education is part of the problem not the solution, because it serves to divide and antagonize groups both intentionally and unintentionally.
- Initiatives that focus exclusively on either the informal or formal dimensions of education are doomed to failure because of the potential influence or veto one dimension has over the other.²⁶

They go on to emphasise the importance of process as well as curriculum content observing that curricula that promote tolerance and egalitarianism but that are delivered within educational systems that are fundamentally intolerant will cancel out the potential positive impact.²⁷

In a similar manner Davies²⁸ challenges the link between education and conflict as being a “grossly under-analysed area”²⁹ and later asserts that education can be an indirect cause of conflict because it promotes amongst other things a “reproduction of economic inequality”, “promotion of a particular version of ...gender segregation” and also by “magnifying ethnic and religious segregation or intolerance”.³⁰

Powerful and cogent arguments indeed but only true if the education system in place replicates the status quo. Proponents of peace education or ‘education for peacebuilding’ to use Bush and Saltarelli’s term have for a long time recognised that this cannot be the case and there are extensive, documented case studies to illustrate this. In ‘Addressing Ethnic Conflict through Peace Education’³¹ Bekerman and McGlynn brought together a group of renowned international scholars in order to illustrate the impact of prolonged peace education initiatives in countries emerging from protracted conflict. Varying from Northern Ireland, Cyprus, South Africa, Nigeria, the Ukraine and

²⁶ Ibid p.33

²⁷ Ibid p. 34

²⁸ Davies, L. (2004): Education and Conflict: Complexity and Chaos. London. Routledge Falmer

²⁹ Ibid p.7

³⁰ Ibid p. 203

³¹ Bekerman, Z. and McGlynn, C. Eds. (2007): Addressing Ethnic Conflict through Peace Education: International Perspective. New York. Palgrave Macmillan

the Israeli/Palestinian conflict it explores the impact of pioneering long term methods of building peaceful societies.

The work shows that different models of educational initiative have been developed according to the type and the status of conflict. Before the conflict, in a situation of social unrest, educational initiatives should aim at prevention. After the conflict, they should contribute to social reconstruction and ultimately development. In post-conflict situations, the main thesis is that peace education is a prerequisite in order to establish lasting peace.

One important area recognised by peace educators and perhaps overlooked by others is the need for training the educators in peace education, this applies to both those in the formal education system and in community-based organizations that are running peace education or conflict resolution programmes. In two studies that Bjersted conducted, in 1994 and 2002³², covering both violent and nonviolent countries he found that teacher-training in peace education is considered important or extremely important by 95% of the respondents.

“A culture of peace can only be achieved if those who guide the institutions and processes of education intentionally undertake to educate for peace.”³³

Indeed, attaining a culture of peace requires both a deliberate and systematic approach to peace education as part of the total education programme and this in turn cannot be successful without the training of the educators.

The other need is to recognise that peace education, like any other form of education is a long term process, it is a process that looks to transform relationships as well as structures but people often expect instant solutions to problems of conflict. Peace education is a continuing process and the task is to nurture patience and perseverance in order for the community to benefit fully from its potential.

³² Bjersted, A.(2002) “Peace Education and Teacher Training: Views Expressed 1994 and 2002”, Peace Education Miniprints, Malmo University, Sweden.

³³ Reardon, B. 2001: Educating for a Culture of Peace in a Gender Perspective Paris: UNESCO. p19.

The differing understandings of the notions of: violence, prejudice, discrimination, acknowledging diversity, building trust also need this patient, methodical approach so that work with different groups, in different environments and at different times is to say the least challenging, and needs to be fully explored.

From this we can see that peace education can be a critical response not only to the challenge of post-conflict peacebuilding but also to the challenge of preventing violent conflict. So what types of programmes are required to promote peace education and its goals?

Reardon's concept of peace education incorporates a variety of knowledge, skills and attitudes for interpreting ideas as well as the development of reflective and participatory capacities for applying knowledge to overcome problems and achieve possibilities for change.³⁴

Reardon's notion of nurturing reflective and participatory capacities parallels Paulo Freire's³⁵ concept of "Conscientization", an idea that informs peace education through its emphasis on raising the critical consciousness of learners as a means for social change. Freire, in developing his humanistic, liberatory, and revolutionary pedagogy, coined the term "Conscientization" to define "learning to perceive the social, political and economic contradictions and to take action against the oppressive elements of reality"³⁶.

The issue here however is that many modern Western education theorists make a differentiation between the purpose of education and its functions.

A purpose is the main aim of a process, something to be achieved and something that is measurable, whereas functions are the by-products that occur as a natural result of the process. In other words Western educational theorists believed that the relaying of

³⁴ Reardon, B.A. (1999). *Peace Education: A Review and Projection*. Sweden: Malmo University.

³⁵ Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York: Seabury Press.

³⁶ Ibid.. p.17

knowledge is the primary purpose of education, while the ability to transfer that knowledge from school to the real world is something that happens naturally purely as a consequence of possessing that knowledge, in other words, a function of the education process. Because of this more effort is put into achieving the measurable such as examination results and very little into how that knowledge could be transferred and used in real life situations.

Freire³⁷ described this as a narrative process where the pupil learns, records and memorises facts and information without really understanding the true significance of the information they are absorbing. The basic premise is that the teacher knows everything and the student knows nothing except for that which the teacher chooses to impart to them. The required outcome is an individual that is a clone of the teacher replicating the status quo of their society. For Freire the teacher is in effect an 'oppressor' whose role is to ensure that the status quo is maintained and that the 'oppressed' student is just a repeater station for the teacher's knowledge base and a continuum of their bias in how this knowledge should be interpreted and used.

This concept of oppression and oppressor can also be seen the interaction between a dominant, controlling elite and the people they have power over. Educational systems are put in place that, at face value, appear to be caring and benevolent but in actual fact are used to reinforce the power of the elite.

'Thus education is posed both as hope but also as a major basis for maintaining inequality since the dominant group not only defines what is valued knowledge, but controls access to it.'³⁸

Freire went on to argue that education should be more of a partnership between teacher and pupil where the pupil is encouraged to question and debate avoiding the authoritarian teacher-pupil model.

³⁷ Ibid. p.52

³⁸ Burns, R.J. and Aspeslagh, R: (1996) *Peace Education and the Comparative Study of Education in Three Decades of Peace Education Around The World*. ed. Burns, R.J. and Aspeslagh, R. Garland Publishing. New York and London

“Through dialogue, the teacher-of-the-students and the students-of-the-teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with students-teachers. The teacher is no longer merely the-one-who-teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn while being taught also teach. They become jointly responsible for a process in which all grow. In this process, arguments based on “authority” are no longer valid; in order to function, authority must be on the side of freedom, not against it. Here, no one teaches another, nor is anyone self-taught. People teach each other, mediated by the world...”³⁹

In this way not only the individual but society moves forward growing in both knowledge and self-esteem. Initially it was considered by western scholars to be aimed at addressing the education of illiterate and oppressed adults in impoverished areas of the world such as Latin America where people were struggling to take part in the transformation of their state. However it was soon realised that his educational philosophy and methodology could be equally applied to the nature of the education process anywhere in the world.

Developed out of his analysis of the nature and effects of oppression, Freire's pedagogy stresses the need for the oppressed themselves to observe the situation of their oppression, thus enabling the consciousness-raising process to begin. This shift in awareness is necessary because "as long as the oppressed remain unaware of the causes of their condition, they fatalistically 'accept' their exploitation"⁴⁰. Of course, since very few opportunities are in place both domestically and internationally that allow the oppressed to see the true nature of their existence, many feel powerless to change their situation, accepting the day-to-day hardship and violence that surrounds them. However, Freire stresses that the reality of oppression must not be perceived as permanent but rather as a limiting but ultimately transformable system. Freire's acknowledgement that society is dynamic rather than static not only makes his pedagogy truly liberating and transformational, but also provides further support for the practice of peace education in the era of globalization.

³⁹ Ibid. p. 61

⁴⁰ Ibid.. p.51

Other peace education theorists, such as Magnus Haavelsrud⁴¹, have reiterated this and other Freirean notions concerning the need for education to develop an awareness and understanding of causal relationships. By understanding the micro/macro relationships (or popularly termed local/global), learners can perceive contradictions in social, political and economic spheres. Through this initial perception, and subsequent understanding, learners undergo a profound transformation characterized by an expanded world-view and greater understanding of the interrelationship of all beings on the planet.

Understanding of, and support for peace education has never been more necessary. Although there is currently some global recognition that the world is in crisis, it should be noted that this current crisis stems from a long history of structural violence within a global culture of war.

Peace educators have long recognized that public support for peace education arises from recognition of economic, social and environmental crises. Although some theorists have framed this perceived crisis in terms of the triumph of capitalism and individual liberty over socialism and equality⁴², it seems more likely that the general perception of crisis arises from more direct threats to national and economic security. In any event, the relevance of peace education derives not just from its perspective on outbreaks of violence in the form of war, terrorism, abuse, etc., but its attempts to address long-standing and chronic threats to human security.

To meet these challenges peace education has developed into an holistic and transformative process, incorporating a number of ideas in its definition and practice. As a multi-disciplinary, international field, peace education looks to promote long-term responses to conflict from the interpersonal to international level so as to try to create a more just and sustainable future for all concerned.⁴³

⁴¹ Haavelsrud, M. (1996). Education in developments. Arena: Norway.

⁴² Smith, D.C. & Carson, T.R. (1998). Educating for a Peaceful Future. Toronto: Kagan and Woo Limited.

⁴³ Hicks, D.(Ed.) (1988). Education for Peace. London: Routledge. pp. 245 -256

Education for peace is "education for the long haul, for ongoing struggle"⁴⁴. By promoting the development of critical thinking skills that lead toward media, scientific and political literacy, as well as incorporating learning on how to cooperate and resolve conflict non-violently, peace education functions to foster the "development of a planetary consciousness that will enable us to function as global citizens and to transform the present human condition by changing societal structures"⁴⁵

⁴⁴ Reardon, B.A. (1988). Comprehensive Peace Education: Educating for Global Responsibility. New York: Teachers College Press.

⁴⁵ Ibid. p.X

Chapter 3: Research Methodology and Methods

Note: Ethical Approval.

Ethics refers to standards of right and wrong that advocate how human beings should behave, usually defined in terms of rights and responsibilities, obligations, benefits to society, fairness, or other specific virtues. They embrace areas such as honesty, compassion, loyalty, and include standards relating to rights, including the right to life, the right to freedom from injury, and the right to privacy amongst others.

When human beings are involved in research programmes then there are good reasons why it is important to apply these ethical standards to the research project.¹

- 1. To protect the participants (human and animal).*
- 2. To ensure that research is conducted in a way that serves interests of individuals, groups and/or society as a whole.*
- 3. To examine specific research activities and projects for their ethical soundness, looking at issues such as the management of risk, protection of confidentiality and the process of informed consent.*
- 4. To build public support for research. People more likely to fund research project if they can trust the quality and integrity of research.*
- 5. To promote a variety of other important moral and social values, such as social responsibility, human rights, animal welfare, compliance with the law, and health and safety.*

When these points are taken into account then it is not surprising that many professional organisations, government departments and universities have adopted specific codes, rules, and policies relating to research ethics, as is the case at Coventry University:

¹ Adapted from: 'What is Ethics in Research & Why is it Important?' by David B. Resnik, J.D., Ph.D. at <http://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/resources/bioethics/whatis/>

“Coventry University requires all research to be submitted for ethical review and clearance as a matter of priority. All staff and students are required to obtain ethical approval before undertaking any research.”²

It was necessary that this research project would require input from individuals that had been/were currently involved in Peace Education in Secondary Schools and these were recruited either by personal contact or recommendation and no participant was paid for taking part in the research project.

All interviewees were supplied with a Project Briefing that outlined the aims and objectives of the project and asked to sign an ‘Informed Consent Form’ that included permission for the interview to be recorded. This document emphasised the voluntary aspect of their participation and their freedom to withdraw from participating in the study for a short period after the study had concluded.

This research project was submitted to and approved by Coventry University Ethics Committee on 15/05/2009.

3.1 Introduction.

The main purpose of this research project is to gain an insight into the reality of the changing nature of the practice of peace education particularly in the context of a formal education programme in a politically and economically stable country.

To do this, this research project is in two separate but interlinked sections. The first major part is to document the history of peace education in English secondary schools since the 1970s and then secondly to examine the current state of the elements of peace education contained within the present curriculum framework and its associated sectors of Citizenship, SEAL (Social, emotional aspects of learning), and PSHEE (Personal social, health, emotional and economic education).

² <http://www.coventry.ac.uk/life-on-campus/the-university/key-information/ethics/>

I will be looking to address the following questions:

How did the major changes in educational theory and practice assist the growth of peace education in English secondary schools after the Second World War?

What were the driving factors that saw the 1970s – 1980s being described as the ‘golden years’ of peace education in English secondary schools?

What were the effects of the New Right educational philosophy on peace education in English secondary schools and did peace education succumb to the pressure or did it re-emerge in a different guise?

To begin I would like to raise the question why undertake a historical research programme in the first place?

McDowell succinctly sums up the value of such research when he says:

‘We instinctively try to locate events in time and often make contrasts between past and present, perhaps hoping that knowledge of the past will help us make informed judgements about the present... to distinguish myth from reality and, to which elements of the past had an influence on future events.’³

“As a defined method, social historiography has given us many of the analytical tools we use for doing systematic research. These tools (gauging the reliability and validity of evidence, clear definition of a historical problem, a theoretical framework or hypothesis, questions about social roles and functions) also provide a framework with which we can appraise the value of historical research. As a result, writers of social history are often involved in exhaustive research efforts and find themselves doing a kind of detective work, tracking down enough original documents, objects, and records (such as census tracts, court records, and newspaper indexes) to describe what few people, if any, have thought worthy of historical attention before.”⁴

Danto goes on to discuss how the various political and social elements are combined so that the individual experience can be placed within a broader setting, and asks the questions do people follow or create social rules and is status derived from power or vice versa?⁵

³ McDowell W.H., (2002). *Historical Research: A guide*. London. Longman. p. 3

⁴ Danto, E.A. (2008). *Historical Research*. (Pocket Guides to Social Work Research Methods Series) Oxford. Oxford University Press. p.15

⁵ Ibid. pp 15-16

So we can say that historical research is a process of critically reviewing and reconstructing past events in order to obtain a greater understanding of who did what, where, when, why and how. This information is then used to try to determine the effect this had on later events and whether the lessons learned can be applied to the future.

In order to follow this path this research will be exploratory; looking at actions and events in the past and the influences that shaped the evolution of peace education both in secondary schools and in the wider society. What were the consequences of political, economic and social actions on the teaching of peace education?

It will be descriptive, setting out to accurately portray the profile and role of organisations and individuals in the development of peace education in English secondary schools since the 1970s and finally it will be explanatory seeking to clarify how the events of past peace education initiatives and actions may have influenced the teaching of peace education in the present.

For this to happen it is necessary to evolve a research methodology and then to determine what methods will be used in order to obtain the necessary data to address the research questions. The research methodology is the strategy, rationale and philosophical assumptions that underpin a particular study and is concerned with the discussion of how a particular piece of research should be undertaken and is a critical study of research methods used. These methods are the individual tools used to gather and interpret the data and are those chosen to support the particular methodology of the project.

In the next section, I will address the methodological background to the research methods used to achieve the various goals and aspirations set out above. I will be looking at how most contemporary social scientists approach research and how the various methods of obtaining and analysing social data can be used to the best effect in this research programme. It is imperative therefore, that in seeking an understanding of the events under review that we use a logical and systematic

approach so that as data emerges it will add to the library of knowledge already in place and help to form the ongoing research process.

3.2 Methodology

All social research revolves around assumptions about how we perceive the world and how we can understand it, questions that philosophers have been struggling with for over two thousand years. Philosophers have traditionally used two terms of methodology, ontology and epistemology.

Ontology is a branch of metaphysics dealing with the nature of being, how and why things exist ranging from individual entities to the universe as a whole. Epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge itself. It asks the questions where does our knowledge come from, how do we acquire it, how does it relate to truth and are there limits to how much we can know?

For philosophers these are complex and weighty fields of enquiry and as Clough and Nutbrown⁶ point out their importance is not restricted to philosophical enquiry. When we examine any piece of experiential research then it becomes obvious that there are many assumptions made about what the world is, how it works and what we think we know or claim to know about it.

All of us have our unique socio-political outlook that reflects our cultural background, our interests, understanding, values etc. and these can influence the way in which we construe the knowledge we gain from our research. It is essential, therefore, for the researcher to identify those values, beliefs, social structures and cultures that may unduly influence the manner in which the research is undertaken and the way in which the researcher interprets the knowledge gained.

⁶ Clough, P and Nutbrown, C. (2002). A Students' Guide to Methodology. London. Sage Publications Ltd. p.30

Approaches to a particular research methodology depend to a great deal on our stance to its ontological and epistemological background. Do we see knowledge as fact based, hard, objective and tangible or do we look upon it as personal, subjective, unique and capable of interpretation?

The first view, known as 'positivism' is that generally adopted by those working in the natural sciences, a doctrine that is historically associated with the work of Auguste Comte (1798-1857). In his various works⁷, Comte identifies five positive sciences (mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry and biology) together with a new one that he called sociology.⁸ Comte's position was that knowledge could only be 'genuine' if it is based upon experimentation, observation and so be firmly established and that application of these methods must apply to his new science, sociology.

Bryman lists the five key concepts of positivism as:

1. Only phenomena and hence knowledge confirmed by the senses can genuinely be warranted as knowledge (the principle of phenomenalism).
2. The purpose of theory is to generate hypotheses that can be tested and that will thereby allow explanation of laws to be assessed (the principle of deductivism).
3. Knowledge is arrived at through the gathering of facts that provide the basis for laws (the principle of deductivism).
4. Science must (and presumably can) be conducted in a way that is value free (that is, objective).
5. There is a clear distinction between scientific statements and normative⁹ statements and the belief that the former are the true domain of the scientist.¹⁰

⁷ Comte first described the epistemology of positivism in a series of texts titled *The Course in Positivist Philosophy* published between 1830 and 1842. These were followed by [A General View of Positivism](#) published in French in 1844 and then in English in 1865.

⁸ Azouvi, Francois. (1999) France in '*The Pimlico History of 20th Century Philosophy*,' Popkin, Richard, H. (Ed). London. Pimlico

⁹ A normative statement is a statement about something with an implicit value judgment or moral claim and is therefore subjective rather than objective.

Such a rigid framework assumes that the researcher can be divorced from the subject of their research, observing it neutrally and without either impinging upon, or affecting the knowledge obtained from the process of observation. Over time, this positivist trust in causality (i.e. that there is a measurable relationship between the cause and effect of a particular occurrence) has relaxed with the growing understanding that the laws of probability govern some observed events more than those of causality do. Known first as 'neo-positivism' and then as 'post-positivism' these approaches accepted the situation that because some human effects cannot be observed in the traditional manner it does not necessarily mean that they can be discounted. This is supported by a modern movement in the natural sciences that accepts that there are degrees of uncertainty so that theories are constructed and formulated before the underlying causal effects have been found to either prove or disprove the constructed theory.

This led to further developments based on the thinking that truth and meaning do not exist *per se* but are created by our interaction with our surroundings. Known as Constructivism (also called Constructionism) this epistemology based on the work of developmental psychologists such as Jean Piaget (1896-1980), contends that people construct meaning through their interpretive interactions with experiences in their social environments. It maintains that individuals create or construct their own new understandings or knowledge through the interaction of what they already know and believe and the ideas, events, and activities with which they come in contact. It presumes that knowledge and experiences already gained play a significant role in our learning and go on to form the basis for subsequent actions and knowledge growth.

These ontologies and epistemologies shade into another theoretical paradigm, that of interpretivism, which is largely concerned with the meaning and interpretation in social research. This hypothesis posits the epistemological view that people act upon their *interpretations* of meanings of objects, actions and language in the world through the process of social interaction. The meanings arising from these interactions are then

¹⁰ Bryman, Alan. (2008). Social Research Methods. Oxford. Oxford University Press. p.13

either revised or amended based on their previous experiences and those of others with which they interact.

“It involves interpreting and acting toward an object, event or process. This interpretive process brings the event or object into the person’s field of experience, where it is acted upon and defined. These interpretations are reflected against the person’s ongoing self-definitions. These definitions of self are emotional, cognitive and interactional, involving feelings and actions taken in the situation.”¹¹

If we look at positivism and interpretivism as bookends between which lie a variety of topics we can make the following comparison:¹²

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¹¹ Denzin, N.K. (2002) ‘The Interpretive Process’ In *The Qualitative Researcher’s Companion* eds. Huberman, A. M. and Miles, B. M. p.361

¹² Adapted from: Weber, R. The Rhetoric of Positivism Versus Interpretivism: A Personal View. MIS Quarterly Vol. 28 No. 1, March 2004. pp. iii-xii

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Table 1. Positivism v. Interpretivism

3.3 Research Methods

From the discussion above, it follows therefore that the very nature of the data to be gathered leads to a requirement for differing types of data collection and analysis and these are termed 'Quantitative' and 'Qualitative' approaches. In simplistic terms the positivist researcher generates numerical or quantitative data that is interpreted using scientific, mathematical methods whereas a researcher using an interpretive approach will produce data as words, text etc. that is analysed subjectively or qualitatively.

Bryman¹³ offers some common contrasts between quantitative and qualitative research:

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Table 2. Qualitative v. Quantitative Research

¹³ Bryman, Alan. (2008). Social Research Methods. Oxford. Oxford University Press. p. 393

Another perceived distinction between the two is that quantitative research is deductive and requiring a hypothesis before it can begin whereas qualitative research is inductive and does not necessarily require a hypothesis as a starting point but can begin with a question that then uses the data obtained to construct the theory.

This approach is now commonly known as 'grounded theory'. The modern concept of grounded theory emerged from the work of Glaser and Strauss¹⁴ who challenged the assumption that qualitative research could only produce descriptive case-studies rather than the development of theory. They defended the legitimacy of qualitative work in its own right, refuting the then prevailing view of qualitative research as primarily a precursor to more 'rigorous' quantitative methods. They challenged the belief that qualitative methods were impressionistic and unsystematic and the arbitrary division of theory and research. However they did not pursue the argument that one form of data was better than the other, preferring to concentrate on the...

'...primacy of emphasis on verification or generation of theory...We believe that *each form of data is useful for both verification and generation of theory*, whatever the primacy of emphasis. Primacy depends only on the circumstances of research, on the interests and training of the researcher, and on the kinds of material he needs for his theory.'¹⁵
(Words in italics are their emphasis.)

They went on to develop the premise that to judge the applicability of theory to experience then a well-constructed grounded theory would need to meet the four primary criteria of:

1. Fitness – the theory must correspond closely with the main area to which it is applied.
2. Understanding – that others working in the same or similar areas would understand the developed theory in such a way that they could apply it to their work.
3. Generality – that the theory is flexible enough to make a wide variety of changing situations understandable.
4. Control – Anyone applying the theory should be able to understand and analyse the reality of the situation and then be able to predict changes in the developing theory.¹⁶

¹⁴ Glaser, B.G. and Strauss, A.L. (1967). The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies For Qualitative Research. New York. Aldine De Gruyter.

¹⁵ Ibid. pp.17-18

¹⁶ Ibid. p237 - 250

The process of developing grounded theory involves constantly searching, comparing and questioning the first records to establish methodical groups that address the research question. This first stage of analysis is followed by further rounds of data collection, each of which serves to make possible the refining of the initial categories as more information is gathered. It places emphasis on the detailed examination and coding or categorising of qualitative data as the first stage of developing theoretical models that accurately describe the data and so are 'grounded' in it.

Bryman illustrates the process and outcomes thus:¹⁷

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Figure 3. Process and outcomes in grounded theory. From Bryman 2008. p.545

¹⁷ Bryman, Alan. (2008). Social Research Methods. Oxford. Oxford University Press. P.545

One particular advantage of this approach is that by constantly revising the theory as data is gathered it uncovers the potential conflicts between different frames of reference used by those involved. In doing so it can produce a 'rich' or 'thick' description that properly acknowledges areas of conflict and contradiction and so is more likely to determine what actually happens rather than some official or folk version of practice.

One important issue however in rigidly following the process shown by Bryman is that it can become a barrier to the very intention of the theory of being flexible and evolutionary, the researcher can become too caught up in the process and lose sight of the final goal.

Charmaz observes that

“Grounded theory guidelines describe the steps of the research process and provide a path through it. Researchers can adopt and adapt them to conduct diverse studies. How researchers use these guidelines is not neutral; nor are the assumptions they bring to their research and enact during the process.”¹⁸

She goes on to stress that grounded theory methods are a set of principles and practices not prescriptions or packages, they are flexible, not rules and can complement other approaches to qualitative data analysis and do not stand in opposition to, or isolated from them.

One major difficulty with grounded theory is that it can produce a very large documentary input that is difficult to manage and depends very much upon the skill of the researcher to develop a consistent coding strategy. One modern development to help ease this problem is that of Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) such as AtlasTi and Nvivo.

These dedicated software programs were first written to improve access to qualitative data by overcoming the physical limitations of paper data records and as the

¹⁸ Charmaz, K: (2006) Constructing Grounded Theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis. London. Sage Publications Ltd. p. 9

acceptability and legitimacy of using computers in this way has grown, the programs have been developed to specifically meet the particular needs of qualitative data analysis

Recent advances in the development of CAQDAS together with the evolution of personal computers with greater processing power has enabled researchers to undertake more detailed coding options, even down to examining texts on a line by line basis. By allowing coding in multiple categories as well as increasing the structures of and number of code categories that researchers can create, these programs present opportunities for deeper and more detailed exploration of the data. Recent developments have also taken the ability to analyse beyond 'just' text into visual and spoken records.

The software also helps researchers to maintain check coding consistency, check for negative outcomes and verify the validity of their understanding of the data. The use of password protection on both individual files and the complete data sets also goes towards managing the issue of confidentiality maintaining a consistent ethical approach.

The use of CAQDAS also extends the blurring of the boundaries between quantitative and qualitative data analysis. There continues to be a debate about which approach is the 'better' but both quantitative and qualitative research are based on a variety of traditions that come from the multiple disciplines of research.

In the light of all of the above discussion on research methodology I would make the observation that it is important not to lose track of the fact that a major element of this research project is historiographical in nature, looking back at how organisations, people and events since the 1970s have shaped the development of peace education in English secondary schools.

Historical data is collected primarily from either archival or historical documents or from individuals involved in the events or processes of the time. Collecting this data

will mean that I will follow an approach based on the flexible principles of grounded theory methodology described by Charmaz, using an interpretive approach and primarily employing qualitative data collection and analysis.

As such, I will be using methods of data gathering and analysis that will support this approach including archival document analysis, interviews and a case study.

I would at this point like to make an observation that there appears to be very little academic work, at least that I could find, dealing with historical research. Most appear to deal with historical research as a sub-set of the study of either History or Genealogy; the exceptions appear to be those by McCulloch and Richardson¹⁹, McDowell and Danto^{20, 21}. This should be compared to the mass of work available covering social science research methods in general. McCulloch and Richardson concede this point when they say: "...while some professional historians have written about their craft, these books have, in the main, been philosophical, polemic or reflective essays, rather than manuals."²²

In the next section I will examine the sources of data and the methods of data collection to be used in more detail.

3.4 Methods to be used in this Research Programme.

This is a piece of longitudinal research in that it covers the analysis of data collected over a time base of over one hundred years and will examine how events from one time may have influenced those that followed.

¹⁹ McCulloch, G. and Richardson, W. (2000). *Historical Research in Educational Settings*. Bury St. Edmunds, St. Edmundsbury Press Ltd.

²⁰ Danto, E.A. (2008). *Historical Research*. (Pocket Guides to Social Work Research Methods Series) Oxford. Oxford University Press.

²¹ Other valuable input has come from:

Professor William Cronon's web based primer titled "Learning to Do Historical Research," found at <http://www.williamcronon.net/researching/index.htm>

The 'Do History' toolkit available at http://dohistory.org/on_your_own/toolkit/research.html

The British Educational Research Association paper 'Doing Feminist Educational Historical Research' at <http://www.bera.ac.uk/doing-feminist-educational-historical-research/>

²² McCulloch, G. and Richardson, W. (2000). p. 18

It will take that form of a modified, retrospective longitudinal study that allows for the backward-looking historical analysis of events using individuals or micro level data.

Retrospective analysis is useful in historical research because it has a clear focus and allows data to be gathered that can be used to build causal relationships. It is used mainly with primary sources and because it uses qualitative data, lends itself to an interpretive approach.²³

3.5 Document sources and analysis.

For any social researcher and for those conducting historical research in particular, anything using language as a means of communication can be a document including text, film or audio records.

(For the purpose of brevity in this chapter I will continue to use the term 'document' to refer to all sources of recorded data.)

Almost everything can be potentially useful for the researcher but it should be remembered that not all documents are equally valuable so an element of caution and interpretation is required in their use.

The main principle is that documents are always the products of a particular place and time and in recognising this we need creative ways of seeing, reading, and interpreting them. We need to look beneath the surface placing them in context with the environment in which they were created.

Danto comments:

“Historical writing can be deceptively simple, beginning with a single document or a journal, but it is never a straightforward string of facts. It is very different from quantitative analysis or natural science writing. The researcher must patiently filter documents through an understanding of the original authors, where they come from, and how their stories changed over time.”²⁴

²³ Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007). Research Methods in Education. London. Routledge. p.212

²⁴ Danto, E.A. (2008). p.9

As intimated above there is the danger of accepting documentary evidence as being beyond reproach. All organisations will, over time, develop a documentary library or archive that, if properly maintained charts the history of the organisation showing how it has evolved both practically and philosophically and almost certainly this will be 'slanted' by the message that the organisation is trying to promote and possibly the view point of the individuals in power. In the same manner all written sources can carry personal or social biases because they occur within a social context. For example, newspaper accounts contemporary with events often suffer from historical inaccuracy because of the ideological slants of reporters and editorial staff or because of the availability of confirming sources or because of the publishers' interests and because of the need to write interesting stories that will sell copies. Yet these same newspaper accounts can be used as historical evidence of people's attitudes and interpretations of an event. 'Official' government and statutory documents are imbued by the political ideology of the government of the time and must be interpreted with that in mind. Films and photographs have been known to be 'edited' in ways either to make them more interesting or to enhance the perceived 'fact' of an event. Modern technology makes it possible for pictures to be created that are total fabrications of an event or even to create an event that did not happen.

In order to alleviate this problem then the skills required of the qualitative researcher are, as Corbin and Strauss say:

'...to step back and critically analyze situations, to recognize and avoid bias, to obtain valid and reliable data, and to think abstractly. To do these, a qualitative researcher requires theoretical and social sensitivity, the ability to maintain analytical distance while at the same time drawing upon past experience and theoretical knowledge to interpret what is seen, astute powers of observation, and good interactional skills.'²⁵

This applies particularly to archival material when often the originator is no longer available to discuss their work and the passage of time has blurred the perception of events.

²⁵ Strauss, A and Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques. London. Sage Publications Ltd. p.18

It has a second impact when we consider the tremendous amount of material that could be available to analysis, the decisions made on what to include or exclude could have a significant effect in the final results and the researcher's ability to differentiate clinically without imposing their own bias or emphasis is paramount to the research.

The questions that need to be asked of both any document and its source are:

- What is it?
- Who wrote or made it and why?
- When was it written or made and who or what was the intended audience?
- Where was it written or made?
- How was it written or made?
- What questions does it raise and what don't we know about it?
- How does it compare with other similar documents and sources?
- Do we have any other information about it and are there others like it?
- How does evidence from it alter or fit into existing interpretations of the past?
- What evidence does it contribute to my research?
- How does it help me to answer my research question?

Sources of documentary history for this research project are varied and wide ranging from the archive records of the SCCE that funded projects in particular Humanities, Moral and Multicultural Education to the work of influential organisations such as CEWC, the OWT World Studies Project and its sister project the World Studies 8 – 13 project, and teacher based organisations such PEN and TfP working to promote peace education in schools by providing networks and materials for teachers.

Government archival material gave an interesting insight to the role that it played in the right wing attacks on individuals and organisations involved in peace education in the 1980s.

3.6 Oral histories

The second major source of data for the historical researcher is that of the personal, spoken evidence of those individuals involved in the events of the time known as oral histories.

Oral history is a form of historical evidence that uses audio or videoed interviews with people who were either directly involved with or personally experienced an event and with the development of simple audio and video technology (both hardware and software) these have become accepted as valuable historical resources. It can be argued that oral history is the ultimate primary source available to modern historians. However it is not just the case of pointing a camera or microphone at someone and letting them talk, to obtain reliable data that can be used effectively, interviews needed to be planned and focussed rather than left to chance.

One major problem with oral history interviews is that they are very dependent upon the respondent's memory of the event. Memory lapses and other such distortions can introduce an element of bias but as the emphasis is more on the event than the individual it can often be combined with other documentary sources as a method of verifying accuracy and reducing bias.

It is generally accepted that there are three main types of interview although how they are labelled differs from academic to academic, for example Oppenheim says

'They are essentially of two kinds

- (a) Exploratory interviews, depth interviews, or free-style interviews (including group interviews)
- (b) Standardized interviews such as used in say, public opinion polls, market research and government surveys.'²⁶

Within his explanation of 'exploratory interviews' he includes 'depth' and 'free-style' interviews that others such as Arksey and Knight separate into two separate classes.

Arksey and Knight follow the perhaps more widely used terms of structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews.²⁷ Structured interviews are used to obtain

²⁶ Oppenheim, A. N. (1992). Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement. London. Pinter Publishers Ltd. p. 47

simple descriptive information for example by asking closed questions requiring a 'yes' or 'no' answer so providing quantitative data that can be tested statistically and presented visually in simple charts. Semi-structured interviews ask a series of fixed open-ended questions that allow the interviewer to improvise follow-up questions to explore the respondent's responses in more depth, so providing a rich source of qualitative data. In unstructured interviews the interviewer has just a list of broad topics or themes to explore and the direction of the interview is determined largely by the respondent. There is no coherent pattern to the data obtained and there are real difficulties for the interviewer in deciding what is relevant.

Before deciding upon the type of interview to be used some thought and preparation should be given transposing the research questions into questions that will provide data that can be used in answering the research questions. To do this Cohen (et al) proposes that the choice of question format depends upon several factors including amongst other²⁸:

- The objectives of the interview
- The nature of the subject matter
- Whether the interviewer is dealing in facts, opinions or attitudes
- Whether specificity or depth is being sought
- The kind of information the respondent can be expected to have
- The extent of the interviewer's own insight into the respondent's situation
- The kind of relationship the interviewer can expect to develop with the respondent.

My original intention was to use semi-structured interviews as I wanted to be able to compare answers to the same question but at the same time to give the respondent time and scope to develop their thoughts and opinions. In the final analysis I settled on the process of doing archival research first and then using free style, conversational interviews to build upon that data extracted from the archives. This allowed me to

²⁷ Arksey, H. and Knight, P. (1999). 'Interviewing for Social Scientists.' London. Sage Publications Ltd. pp 1-8

²⁸ Cohen et al (2007). pp 356 - 357

build a relationship with the respondent and develop the interview more as a conversation than a question and answer session and made it easier to continue the conversation later by email for example. Interviews were recorded and transcribed later as this also gave the opportunity for the conversation to develop naturally and ensured that nothing that the respondent said was missed. One further advantage of modern technology is the ability to produce and save the recordings electronically making data protection and respondent confidentiality more secure.

I had anticipated using a sample of between 10 – 15 respondents to cover the different areas but this proved to be somewhat optimistic. Regrettably some of those I had hoped to interview were, for a variety of reasons, reluctant to take part but the main underlying reason given was that it had all been a long time ago and that they had 'moved on'.

3.7 Case Study

A case study is a specific, often unique event that is often used to illustrate a more general principle. It is both the study of an instance in action and of an evolving situation and is used to illustrate the reality of 'what it is like' to be in a particular situation and also used to illustrate the nature of a wider environment. They are set up so that boundaries can be drawn around the case and they can be defined with reference to the role and functions of the participants.

Case studies are commonly associated with a particular group or community of participants, focussing on the participants and their interpersonal interaction within their physical environment. One of their strengths is that they take place within a 'real' context producing data that is firmly grounded in reality.

Case Studies:

- will have temporal characteristics which help to define their nature
- have geographical parameters allowing for their definition
- will have boundaries which allow for definition
- may be defined by an individual in a particular context, at a point in time

- may be defined by the characteristics of the group
- may be defined by role or function
- may be shaped by organizational or institutional arrangements.²⁹

By their nature they are often narrowly focussed on a particular situation and although often seen as being used by researchers using an interpretive methodology employing methods such as semi-structured interviews and participant observation but they can also be a source of quantitative data by using surveys for example.³⁰ They are a combination of description, analysis and interpretation providing rich, vivid data and statistical information.

For my research I will be using a single, descriptive case study, based on the Peace Partners Training Programme, to illustrate how peace education is being developed in Coventry schools.

The Peace Partners Programmes was a pilot project with the aim of training adult workers from a range of agencies in conflict resolution skills. This knowledge would then 'cascade' down by training young people as 'Peace Partners' working as peer mediators within both their schools and local community. The adult training was provided by staff from Coventry City Council's Services for School Department and Coventry University's Centre for Peace and Reconciliation Studies. Other secondary input came from Coventry Cathedral's schools' team and Coventry Peace House who were utilised to give a broader knowledge and skills platform than would have been available had the project been just schools based.

As part of the Local authority's Anti-Bullying Strategy the project was funded by a grant of approximately £52,000 from the Neighbourhood Renewal Fund.

²⁹ Cohen et al, (2008). p.254

³⁰ Bryman (2008). P. 53-55

I will be looking not only at how the programme was managed and its end results but also looking to determine what if any result the programme is having now, two years after it ended. Are the adults still using the material and if so how and to what effect?

There are obvious dangers of using a single case in a research programme not the least being the temptation to use the results as being indicative of the norm. This case study will be used solely to illustrate the various tools that are used in teaching peace education in English secondary schools at the present time.

3.8 Conclusion.

This chapter has set out to determine both the methodology and methods to be used in examining the history and development of peace education in English secondary schools post World War 1 and in its final stage to examine the current state of the elements of peace education contained within the present curriculum framework (Citizenship) and to determine whether the tenets of peace education have been absorbed into this framework.

To do this I used an approach that followed the basic principles of grounded theory methodology. As such, the methodology of grounded theory is both repetitive, requiring a regular interchange between concept and data, and comparative, requiring a constant comparison across types of evidence (triangulation) to control the theoretical level and scope of the emerging theory. Data was collected from a variety of sources such as archives, books, journals, media and personal interviews. This meant that it was possible to undertake a constant triangulation of data as archives for example, could be revisited to validate, data obtained from interviews for example.

Approaches to a particular research methodology also depend to a great deal on the researcher's stance to its ontological and epistemological background. In this research project the knowledge gained was not hard, objective, fact based knowledge but personal, subjective and unique, and so an interpretive approach to this knowledge (epistemology) should be used. In terms of methodology, interpretive research does not set out to test theories, but aims to produce an understanding of the social context of the

phenomenon and the process whereby the phenomenon influences and is influenced by the social context

An interpretive study – such as this research – focuses on human activities, than can be subject to a variety of interpretations, interventions and individual decisions. Interpretive data gathering integrates human interest into the study, rejecting the possibility of an ‘objective’ or ‘factual’ account of events and situations, seeking instead a comparative understanding of experiences shared between the researcher and the various sources of data, such as the interviewees.

Lack of access to QDAS software meant that data analysis was undertaken using a ‘Key Word in Context Approach’ (KWIC). This involves searching through multiple files using a combination of key words and context phrases. For example a search of a group of related subject files using a keyword ‘Citizenship’ and a context phrase ‘Peace Education’ would highlight their relevance to each other in a particular file. There is software available that allows for the interrogation of multiple PDF file types by this method and so to aid analysis I converted the majority of my written data collection to this file type.

Chapter 4: An outline of the development of English educational policy from 1944 to 2010.

4.1 Introduction

Education in the United Kingdom has a devolved structure with each of the separate countries having their own separate, independent system. This is not a 'new' evolution as there were differences even before the various recent acts of legislative devolution. However it is not within the remit of this dissertation to explore the merits or demerits of the differing systems merely to note that they do exist. In order to place the history of peace education in English secondary schools in context it is necessary to have an appreciation of the changes that have taken place in the past decades, particularly since 1944. This time span saw a major transformation in the way in which education was organised, managed and controlled. It was characterised by profound and often confrontational debates questioning the role of education in society and particularly the relationship between education, the economy and the nation. There were crucial changes in the structure and nature of schools, colleges and universities, the introduction of a managed, fixed curriculum and the manner in which teachers were expected to work with the introduction of formal assessment targets and goals all of which had a direct impact on the teaching of peace education in schools.

In this chapter I will examine these changes in two distinct areas, firstly the introduction and demise of comprehensive education and then the introduction of market force policies in areas such as the curriculum and teacher training.

4.2 The rise and fall of comprehensive education.

In 1941 one of the leading Conservative politicians of the time R. A. (Rab) Butler was tasked by Prime Minister Winston Churchill, to create an educational system that

reflected the wartime urge for social reform and greater economic and social equality that culminated in the 1944 Education Act.¹

The Act set out to extend educational opportunity by establishing two important principles, the first was free compulsory education for all from 5 years to 15 and secondly that there would be three progressive stages of education; primary, secondary and further education.²

Secondary education would follow the format proposed in the 1943 White Paper 'Educational Reconstruction':³

'...three main types of secondary schools to be known as grammar, (secondary) modern and technical schools.'⁴ (The Tripartite System)

One major consequence of other social reforms⁵ set out within the Act was that the role of education was extended beyond the classroom to include the needs of children outside of both school age and school hours. This idea of formal education being linked to a wider awareness of the role that schools could have within their community would have a significant impact on the role of peace education in schools as we will see in the following chapters of this thesis.

Considering that it is perceived practice for an incoming administration of one political hue to negate the effect of the previous administration's legislation it is, at first take, somewhat surprising that state educational reform continued to build upon the 1944

¹ Butler, R.A. (1971) The Art of the Possible. London. Hamish Hamilton. p.86

² s.7 1944 Education Act. HMSO. London.

³ The National Archive. Educational Reconstruction: Note by the President of the Board of Education. p.7 Downloaded 3rd December 2010

⁴ Grammar Schools: these provided an academic education for pupils between the ages of 12 and 19. Their pupils had passed the 11+ examination and therefore these schools had the most academically gifted children. Most of the pupils entered university after school. It was generally perceived as a middle class institution. Secondary Modern Schools: Those who failed the 11+ went to a Secondary Modern School where they normally attended a four year course leading to the School Leaving Certificate. There was a possibility of staying on for a further year and in the 1950s there was a growing tendency to do so. Those who continued into the 5th year could sit the General Certificate of Education (GCE). Secondary Technical Schools: Children attending Secondary Modern Schools could, at the age of 12 or 13 move to a Secondary Technical School. These provided a special emphasis on technical subjects and were specifically geared to preparing the pupils for a trade after leaving school. However, there was a lack of qualified teachers and this must be seen as one cause for their lack of success.

⁵ To support the new structure a variety of services were created that included free school transport, free milk, medical and dental treatment. School meals were to be provided for all children who wanted them. Wherever possible children with special needs were to be educated in mainstream schools.

Act. When the Labour Party came into power in the 1945 General Election they continued the implementation of the Act because it:

“...was the product of around three years' *genuine* consultation with a number of interested bodies: and was piloted through the Houses of Parliament by a wartime coalition government.”⁶

This was not to say that there was overwhelming support for the tripartite approach within the Labour Party but they were prepared to live with it in the belief that the new system would provide better educational prospects for working class children. However there was a growing call within the party for the introduction of comprehensive education.

The idea of comprehensive (or multilateral) education as opposed to selection in the UK was not something new as there is some evidence that schools were following the comprehensive ethos as early as the 1920's and London County Council decided to establish comprehensive schools where possible in 1936.⁷ The first truly comprehensive school, Holyhead County School on the Isle of Anglesey, was established in 1949 and accepted pupils of all abilities from its local area.⁸

“By 1938, however the Labour Party, or at least sections within it, were advocating multilateral or comprehensive schools for all children after the age of 11.”⁹

This unrest was the result of one major weakness within the 1944 Act that was the failure to address the method of transfer from primary to secondary schools.

As a result, because there were too few free grammar school places to meet the demand there was a need for some form of selective mechanism that was met by the introduction of the '11+ examination' that tested for intelligence, English and mathematics.

⁶ Chitty, C. (2004). *Education Policy in Great Britain*. Basingstoke. Palgrave MacMillan, p. 18

⁷ <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/story.asp?storyCode=92186§ioncode=26> accessed 14th September 2011.

⁸ <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/4202774.stm> accessed 14th September 2011.

⁹ Lawton, D. (2005) *Education and Labour Party ideologies, 1900-2001 and beyond*. Abingdon Routledge Falmer

However, the status quo continued as successive Conservative governments were elected in 1951, 1955 and 1959, 11+ selection continued and the perceived view of the gap in standards between grammar and secondary modern schools grew.

In 1963 The Newsom Report 'Half our Future' brought the debate about selection by intelligence to a head when it said:

"Intellectual talent is not a fixed quantity with which we have to work but a variable that can be modified by social policy and educational approaches..."¹⁰

In the 1964 election campaign, the Labour Party focussed on ending the 11+ and the introduction of large scale comprehensive education and wasted little time on introducing both once they were elected.

In January 1965 the Secretary of State said in a Memorandum to the Cabinet that 68 out of 148 LEAs were "already introducing or devising schemes of reorganisation which aim to get rid of the 11-plus".¹¹ He went on to point out that whilst some of these schemes were acceptable others were less well thought out and that...

"It is now time to give a national lead, indicating the principles to be observed and the kind of problems likely to arise in different areas when reorganisation is planned."¹²

In July 1965, his successor, Anthony Crosland did just that when he issued Circular 10/65 that set out the Government's intention to end selection in secondary education and requested that all LEAs submit plans for the introduction of comprehensive education in their areas.

The problem with the circular was with the language it used, LEAs were 'requested' to submit plans, the Government did not "seek to impose destructive or precipitate change on existing schools", they recognised that the evolution of a comprehensive schooling system "must be a constructive process requiring careful planning by local

¹⁰ The Newsom Report (1963).p.6

¹¹ Cabinet Paper CP(55)6 Comprehensive Secondary Education; Memorandum by The Secretary of State for Education and Science. London. The National Archive. p.1 Accessed 3rd December 2010

¹² Ibid p.1

education authorities".¹³ The wording was a perfect excuse for those LEAs that wished to, to delay and prevaricate so that by October 1969 25 out of 163 LEAs had still not submitted a proposal of any kind.¹⁴ The government therefore proposed to pass legislation to force LEAs to go comprehensive but before it could be put into place they lost power in the 1970 election.

The incoming Secretary for Education, Margaret Thatcher, immediately withdrew Circular 10/65 and replaced it with Circular 10/70 leaving individual LEAs free to decide whether or not they would go comprehensive but this was hardly the success she would have hoped for because:

‘By the end of her tenure as Education Secretary the number of comprehensive schools had doubled and over 60 per cent of secondary age children attended them.’¹⁵

In fact, even with all the changes that would take place through the next thirty years comprehensive schools would remain the norm throughout the UK, by 2008/2009 over 82 per cent of all secondary age children were being taught in schools that operated a comprehensive admissions policy.¹⁶

1974 saw a Labour government, under the leadership of Harold Wilson, returning to a programme that built upon the earlier education reforms. In 1975 state funding for Direct Grant schools was withdrawn and the 1976 Education Act set out in its opening section:

‘...local education authorities shall, in the exercise and performance of their powers and duties relating to secondary education, have regard to the general principle that such education is to be provided only in schools where the arrangements for the admission of pupils are not based (wholly or partly) on selection by reference to ability or aptitude.’¹⁷

¹³ DES (1965) Circular 10/65. The Organisation of Secondary Schools. London. HMSO. London. At the National Archive downloaded 3rd December 2010

¹⁴ Cabinet Paper CP969)145 (1969). Reorganisation of Secondary Schools; Memorandum by the Secretary for State and Science. London The National Archive p.2 downloaded 3rd December 2010

¹⁵ Tomlinson, S. (2005) p. 23

¹⁶ Hughes, M. (Ed.). Social Trends 40 (2010) Newport. Wales. Office for National Statistics/Palgrave Macmillan. Ch 3.p. 29

¹⁷ Education Act 1976. HMSO London. The National Archive downloaded 3rd December 2010

In one fell swoop it brought reluctant LEAs into line, abolished selection in state secondary schools and brought an end to the concept of the tripartite education system and put comprehensive education firmly in the driving seat for the foreseeable future.

4.3 Control of the market and Curriculum.

However this was not the only weakness in the 1944 Act; nowhere in the Act was the word 'curriculum' mentioned. In practice curriculum content and the teaching methods to be used were set by the school's Head Teacher and staff under the general management of the school governors and more distantly the LEA.

Whilst, as I will show in a later chapter, this freedom of choice in the matter of curriculum content was of significant benefit to those taking up the cause of peace education in the 1970s and 80s, it also provided further ammunition for the continuing battle in restructuring the education system.

Towards the end of the 1960s the political consensus on education began to crumble as the far right of the Conservative Party began to flex its muscles. They were particularly focussed on what they perceived as the declining standards in education that were a direct result of the introduction and growth of comprehensive schools, the introduction of modern, progressive teaching methods focussing on child-centred approaches and the spread of the philosophy of liberal education as advocated by people such as Dewey, Rousseau, Montessori and Freire.

In the first two 'Black Papers' ('The Fight for Education', and 'Crisis in Education'), both published in 1969, contributors who included eminent right wing activists as Kingsley Amis, Iris Murdoch and Rhodes Boyson,¹⁸ levelled four specific accusations;

- deteriorating standards of literacy and numeracy,

¹⁸ In March 1969 at Hull University C. B. Cox, with his lifelong friend A. E. Dyson founded Critical Quarterly (later The Critical Quarterly Society). Originally created to carry academic articles and reviews, as a journal whose priority was writing by living figures, in 1969 it published the first of a series of five 'Back Papers'.

- declining standards of behaviour,
- the detrimental effect of 'modern' teaching methods,
- the danger of pupils being unduly influenced by 'left - wing' teachers.

They argued strongly for the return to selection for secondary education, the end of comprehensivisation and the imposition of a core curriculum. Further Black Papers were published in 1970, 1975 and 1977. However between the 1970 paper and the 1975 paper 'The Fight for Education' there had been a considerable shift in public and political feeling that PM James Callaghan (who had replaced Wilson in 1976) acknowledged when he focused on education as a major policy issue. A confidential document, *School Education in England: Problems and Initiatives* (popularly known as The Yellow Book) issued in 1976:

"Proceeded to analyze the various strands of this criticism relating to both primary and secondary schools and to the extent in which the media campaign represented the legitimate concerns and misgivings of parents and employers."¹⁹

In a landmark speech on education written by the Downing Street Policy Unit and given at Ruskin College in Oxford on 18 October 1976 Callaghan gave conflicting messages when first he said:

"My remarks are not a clarion call to Black Paper prejudices. We all know those who claim to defend standards but who in reality are simply seeking to defend old privileges and inequalities."²⁰

But then gave credence to the arguments of the right when, towards the end of his speech, he outlined those items that concerned him and that he felt should be examined in detail:

"There are the methods and aims of informal instruction, the strong case for the so-called 'core curriculum' of basic knowledge; next, what is the proper way of monitoring the use of resources in order to maintain a proper national

¹⁹ Chitty, C. (1989). *Towards a New Education System: The Victory of the New Right*. London. The Falmer Press.p.74

²⁰ <http://education.guardian.co.uk/thegreatdebate/story/0,9860,574645,00.html> accessed 10 November 2010

standard of performance; then there is the role of the inspectorate in relation to national standards;...”²¹

There can be little doubt that the Right felt somewhat vindicated by Callaghan’s speech:

“The intellectual battle over progressive education was won by the Black Papers...One sign of this was the 1976 conversion of Mr. Callaghan...In the words of The Times Educational Supplement he “gathered his Black Paper cloak around him” ”²²

In 1977, Shirley Williams (Secretary of State for Education) introduced a Green Paper ‘Education in Schools’, where she was careful to put some distance between herself and Callaghan by stating that there was no evidence that education standards had fallen and that children in general were better educated than those in 1945.²³ She also went on to say that in her opinion child centred approaches could produce excellent academic and social results.²⁴

But this was the final rear-guard action for the government; the General Election in May 1979²⁵ saw an incoming Conservative government led by Margaret Thatcher determined to reshape education policy.

One of the first items on the statute book was the 1979 Education Act reversing the process of comprehensivisation by repealing section 1 of the 1976 Act.

²¹ Ibid.

²² C.B. Cox writing in the Times on 2nd March 1979 ‘We are all (or nearly all) Black Paper-ers now’ – I came across a copy of this article inside a second hand copy of Black Paper Two purchased in February 2011.

²³ Tomlinson, S. (2005). P.26

²⁴ It was also in this paper that the concept of schools being part of their local community was first promoted in a structured manner, building on the school/society relationship advanced in the 1944 Act. p.37

²⁵ It was predictable that there were no further Black Papers produced after 1979, for the new right the battle for education had been won. Driven by a press and media that now viewed comprehensive schooling and progressive method with a great deal of suspicion and contempt, public opinion had shifted towards a more critical position on education. Each succeeding Secretary of State for Education (Margaret Thatcher appointed five of them in the eleven years of her premiership) embarked upon right wing policies encouraging the notional concept of choice and developing market driven concepts such as school funding the assisted places and voucher schemes.

The 1980 Education Act increased the power of the Education Secretary in education policy, and introduced the right of parents to choose the school they wanted. These changes established the concept of the market driven education:

‘...education must be regarded as a commodity: teachers are to be regarded as producers and parents (rather than children) the consumers.’²⁶

This was to set the foundations for educational policy right through to the present.

The 1986 Education Act (No.2) went a step further, removing even more power from the LEAs, setting out a method of determining the number of parents, LEA representatives etc. that should be included in the maintained schools governing body. As part of their strategy the government had also started the process of managing the school curriculum.

In 1979 Department for Education and Skills (DES) Circular 14/77 ‘LEA Arrangements for the School Curriculum’ required LEAs to publish their curriculum policies, followed in 1980 by a DES document ‘Framework for the School Curriculum’ that specified the proportion of the timetable to be spent on the core subjects.²⁷ Early in 1980 the DES and the Welsh Office published ‘A Framework for the School Curriculum’ identifying a core curriculum of English, maths, science, modern languages and religious education.

Under the leadership of Keith Joseph, Secretary of State for Education and Science, increasing requests and advice about managing evolution of the curriculum were issued that included:

²⁶ Demaine J. (1999) *Education Policy and Contemporary Politics*. London. Macmillan Press. p. 12

²⁷ Chitty C. (2004).p. 123. Nb. The core subjects that Chitty refers to are: English, maths, science, a modern foreign language and religious education.

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Table 3. Developing the Curriculum²⁸

In the late 1980s the Hillgate Group²⁹ had emerged producing a series of papers similar in style to the 'Black Papers' of the 1970s. These argued for further radical reform of the educational system including the complete removal of LEA power, the introduction of "a sensible and tried curriculum, including reading, writing and mathematics"³⁰, and "teachers who know their subject, take an interest in it, and are able to convey their interest to their pupils"³¹ and believed that "good schools are based on discipline and order, and not on free expression or idle play."³²

They launched a direct attack on teachers and their training and in particular they focussed upon the structure and content of teacher training courses which appeared

²⁸ Adapted from Aldrich, R. (2002).

²⁹ The Hillgate Group was formed in 1986 and consisted of Caroline Cox, Jessica Douglas-Home, John Marks, Laurence Norcross and Roger Scruton. Cox, Scruton and Marks under various organisational umbrellas were especially venomous in their attacks upon subject areas that did not reflect their right wing political views such as "subjects such as 'peace studies', 'world studies', 'life skills', 'social awareness' and the like, whose purpose "is...transparently political" and that had "neither method, nor results, nor real utility to the child." I will consider these in particular in the next chapter.

³⁰ Ibid. p.1

³¹ Ibid. p.2

³² Ibid p.1

‘designed to stir up disaffection, to preach a spurious gospel of “equality” and to subvert the entire traditional curriculum’.³³

They wanted initial teacher training to produce subject specialists, this taking priority over the current emphasis on training in pedagogy³⁴ and they were supported in this by a vocal right wing press. These concerted attacks coupled with a growing public disenchantment with the teaching profession meant that change was inevitable.

In continuing to develop a long-term strategy to reform the education system the Conservatives 1987 general election Manifesto ‘The Next Moves Forward’ listed four major reforms for education that included establishing a National Core Curriculum and allowing state schools to opt out of LEA control.³⁵

With success in the election³⁶ they soon turned their promises into legislation with the introduction of the Education Reform Act 1988 (ERA) which was the culmination of a policy that

‘...included consolidating a market ideology to be achieved by parental choice, establishing central government control over the curriculum and assessment, further eroding the powers and responsibilities of local authorities, teachers and their trainers...’³⁷

The Act has generally been accepted as the most important piece of education legislation since the 1944 Butler Act primarily because it made a fundamental shift in the power structure of the education system in England and Wales by placing control of educational policy and structure firmly in the hands of government. For the first time a National Curriculum was to be imposed, taking control of the curriculum content out of the hands of the teaching profession for the first time since 1944. I will

³³ Cox C. et al. (1989)

³⁴ Lawlor S. (1990). *Teachers Mistaught*. In Lawlor. S. (Ed) (1995): *An Education Choice: Pamphlets from the Centre 1987-1994*. London. Centre for Policy Studies. p. 139

³⁵ 1987 Conservative Party General Election Manifesto: *The Next Moves Forward* downloaded 6th November 2010 from <http://www.conservative-party.net/manifestos/1987/1987-conservative-manifesto.shtml>

³⁶ This was Mrs. Thatcher’s third term in office following her success in the 1983 election

³⁷ Tomlinson, S. (2004). p. 48

show later how this had a major, negative impact on the teaching of peace education in secondary schools.

However there can be little doubt that, as Chitty observed

‘In attempting to redesign the education service from top to bottom, it attracted more bitter and widespread professional opposition than any piece of legislation passed since the introduction of the National Health Service in the second half of the 1940s.’³⁸

In November 1990 Thatcher was succeeded by John Major who continued to encourage the application of market forces, increasing the drive for efficiency, continuing commitment to selection and further devolving of power from local authorities. Within this there were growing attacks on the teaching profession and the methods they used.

In 1991 a teachers' pay review body was established under Teachers' Pay and Conditions Act placing teachers' pay and conditions under the control of the Secretary for State. School performance tables (commonly called league tables) were published for the first time in 1992 and inevitably selective schools topped the tables and were depicted as performing better than their local comprehensives despite differing social class compositions.³⁹

1992 saw The Education (Schools) Act (1992) establishing the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) replacing Her Majesties Inspectorate (HMI).⁴⁰ In the same year The Further and Higher Education Act (1992) removed Sixth form colleges from LEA control. Later that year the White Paper 'Choice and Diversity: A New Framework for Schools' celebrated and enlarged upon the claim that:

“Five great themes run through the story of educational change in England and Wales since 1979: diversity, increasing parental choice, greater autonomy for schools and greater accountability.”⁴¹

³⁸ Chitty, C. (2004). p.51

³⁹ Tomlinson, S. (2004). Education in a Post-Welfare Society. Maidenhead. Open University Press. Page 55

⁴⁰ Lawton, D. (2005). Education and Labour Party Ideologies: 1900 – 2001 and Beyond. Abingdon (UK). RoutledgeFalmer. Page 110

⁴¹ DfE White Paper (1992): Choice and Diversity: a Framework for Schools. London. HMSO. p. 2 at The National Archive downloaded 3rd December 2010

Amongst the key objectives of the paper was to create a new agency, the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA), to take control of the curriculum.⁴²

Although apparently referred to as ‘chaos and perversity’ by some critics⁴³ the White Paper went on to form the basis for the 1993 Education Act.

Standard Assessment Tasks (SATs) proposed in 1988 were finally introduced in the 1990-91 academic year,^{44,45} and in November 1992 the first national school performance tables at GCSE level for England were introduced.

It was hardly surprising then that there was considerable teacher unrest over the content of the National Curriculum (NC), its testing regime and the increased workload imposed on teachers.⁴⁶

In 1993 the government published proposals to create a new Teacher Training Agency and for Ofsted to take over the responsibility of inspecting and validating teacher training institutions that became law with the passing of the Education Act (1994).

In his report published in 1994⁴⁷ Sir Ron Dearing argued that the curriculum had become so burdensome that it was impossible to implement practically and that the resultant paperwork and testing was having a detrimental effect on good teaching and learning. Dearing recommended a reduction in curriculum content and that less time should be spent on fixed teaching. In 1994, in an attempt to pacify teachers, Education Secretary, Gillian Shephard accepted the final recommendations of the report, however the ‘slimmed down’ version of the NC did little to address “the basic question about the kinds of knowledge that all young people in a democracy were

⁴² Ibid Chapter 2 p.18

⁴³ Lawton, D. (2005) p.110

⁴⁴ Tomlinson, S. (2004). p. 62

⁴⁵ The tests were introduced for 7-year-olds for the academic year ending July 1991, and for 11-year-olds in the academic year ending July 1995. Similar tests were introduced for 14-year-olds for the academic year ending July 1998 but were scrapped in July 2009.

⁴⁶ Chitty C. (2004). p. 130

⁴⁷ Dearing, Sir R. (1993): The National Curriculum and Its Assessment. London. SCAA

entitled to have access to, the organisation and transmission of knowledge, and the interactions between teachers and learners.”⁴⁸

And so now it would appear that the right-wing educational revolution that began with the 1970 election of the Conservative Party was complete.

4.4 From 1997 – 2010 – continuing the market structure and the demise of comprehensives

By 1997 the Labour Party had been completely transformed from its traditional left-of-centre role to a party of the centre. Kinnock had been replaced by Blair who transformed the Party’s ideology, organisation and structures and led them to victory in the 1997 election.

Throughout the campaign Blair had continually asserted that education would be at the centre of their government policy ^{by increasing} spending on education as the cost of unemployment fell. But detail in the manifesto gave indications that the party would actually continue with the Conservative policy of assessment and measurement as being the criteria for success and in what was to become a mantra for the future...”Standards, more than structures, are the key to success.”

“In education, we reject both the idea of a return to the 11-plus and the monolithic comprehensive schools that take no account of children's differing abilities.”⁴⁹

Their first White Paper on Education ‘Excellence in Schools’ included many of the promises made in the election manifesto. Much of this was incorporated in The 1998 School Standards and Framework Act where maintained secondary schools were to be allowed to select up to 10% of their pupils by their “aptitude for one or more

⁴⁸ Tomlinson, S. (2004) p.83

⁴⁹ Labour Party Manifesto (1997); new Labour because Britain deserves better: Britain will be better with new Labour. London. The Labour Party at <http://www.labour-party.org.uk/manifestos/1997/1997-labour-manifesto.shtml> accessed 10th November 2011

prescribed subjects”,⁵⁰ set out a new framework for schools and saw the creation of Education Action zones.⁵¹

In March 1999 they launched the ‘Excellence in Cities’ (EiC) programme with the aim of raising standards, promoting inclusion and attempting to resolve some of the educational problems afflicting inner-city areas. This would by 2002, include increasing the number of specialist schools to 800, beacon schools to 1000⁵², and creating a further 40 Education Action zones (EAZ).⁵³ Further, ‘failing schools’ would become ‘city academies’ where LEA control would be replaced by either the government, voluntary (including churches and charities) or business sponsors. It also set out to modernise LEAs, inspections were to be increased and those deemed to be ‘failing’ would be taken over by private companies. In effect the programme was signalling the start of the privatisation of education.

In 2001, £500,000 was allocated to a scheme where a number of grammar schools would form partnerships with local comprehensive or secondary modern schools. For the first time a Labour government was putting money into grammar schools as part of its policy.

⁵⁰ s.102 of The Schools Standards and Framework Act. (c31) London. HMSO at the National Archive. Accessed 3rd December 2010

⁵¹ This redefined the framework for schools that would see the new categories of community (previously county), foundation (grant maintained), voluntary, community special and foundation special schools but also created Education Action Zones (EAZ). The Act allowed for 25 of these to be set up in disadvantaged areas where groups of schools (primary and secondary) would be encouraged to work together with extra income from government grants and sponsorship from local companies. They would be allowed to step away from the NC and their action forums (made up of parents and representatives of local business and communities) took over some of the responsibilities of local authorities. EAZs would initially run for 3 years but could be extended for a further 2 years if the Secretary of State saw fit.

⁵² The Specialist Schools Programme began in 1994, when the Conservative Government allowed a small group of grant-maintained and voluntary-aided schools to apply for "technology college" status. In 1995 the programme was opened up to all secondary schools. By 1999 the schools had to raise £50,000 from business or other partners and then would receive increased capital funding plus a per capita increase per pupil for the next four years from the state.

Beacon Schools were to be a major part of the DfEE ‘raising standards’ agenda. They were schools that had shown that they had particular strengths in areas such as the curriculum, pastoral care or school management. Teachers from the schools would mentor teachers from partner schools. The first group of schools, 75 in all, started in September 1998

⁵³ <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/300358.stm> Accessed 14th November 2010.

Following success in the 2001 General Election a new White Paper “Schools – Achieving Success” proposed giving Head Teachers control of up to 85% of the school’s budget, a greater role for the private sector and more specialist and city academies. These proposals were enacted in the Education Act (2002).

In September 2003 the Government issued the Green Paper ‘Every Child Matters’ that set out to address the problem of some children falling through the gaps between social, health and educational services and The Children’s Act (2004) put much of this into place.

In 2004 the government issued a five year strategy for education, formed without any form of consultation⁵⁴ that was to set the agenda for their policy through to 2010.⁵⁵ For secondary education the proposals would be far reaching. By 2010 every school that reached the relevant standard would become either a specialist school or an Academy, with at least 200 Academies in place by then and all secondary schools would be free to own and control their land, assets and staff recruitment and engage with external partners to form charitable trusts.

Consultation began in October 2004 and the resulting Education Act 2005 put the control of school funding firmly in the hands of the Secretary of State rather than the Local Authorities (LAs) thus overturning an arrangement made over 100 years previously. It also effectively reduced the power of the teaching trade unions and the LEAs creating a situation where schools were competing against each other for funding and other resources.⁵⁶

October 2005 saw a new White Paper, “Higher Standards, Better Schools for All” that included the creation of Trust schools that would be independent but maintained schools that could either acquire a self-governing Trust or become a self-governing Foundation school.

⁵⁴ Ibid. p.10

⁵⁵ Command Paper CM6272. (2004): Department for Education and Skills: Five Year Strategy for Education and Skills. London. HMSO at The National Archive downloaded 3rd December 2010

⁵⁶ Tomlinson, S. (2005) p.131

Whilst the corresponding Education and Inspections Act 2006⁵⁷ did not use the title 'Trust School' it did allow an existing maintained school to become foundation school and acquire a charitable trust to support it. Schools would retain ownership of their land and assets and perhaps more importantly could set their own admissions policy whilst still remaining a LA maintained school.

The Act also introduced a duty on all maintained schools in England to encourage community cohesion and on Ofsted to include this in their inspection reports.

The Education and Skills Act (2008) raised the minimum age that a person could leave education or training to 18. This was not about raising the school leaving age but more to ensure that young people continued in either formal education, part-time education or work-based training or volunteering.

By the time they were forced out of office in 2010 New Labour had more or less completed the transition of secondary education based on the prevailing 'market economy' model. Specialist schools and Academies would continue to grow with increased funding, limited selection and some freedom to move away from aspects of the national curriculum.

4.5 Conclusion: A new role for peace education.

We have seen above how secondary education in England had changed dramatically since the introduction of the 1944 Education Act and many of the changes from the mid-1980s, such as the introduction of the National curriculum and market force strategies, had a detrimental effect on the teaching of peace education in schools by taking away from teachers and LEAs the ability to influence what was taught and provide local funding to meet local needs.

⁵⁷ There can be little doubt that this piece of legislation caused considerable disquiet in the ranks of the Labour Party MPs as it was only passed into law with the support of the Conservative Party.

However as the turn of the century approached there were opportunities for the tenets of peace education to re-establish themselves.

In November 1997 David Blunkett, then Secretary of State for Education and Employment put in place an Advisory Group on Citizenship under the Chairmanship of Bernard Crick. The advisory group membership included people encompassing a wide range of views and as Lawton observes

“The Advisory Group must have worked hard because the final report is not only clearly argued but is a polished and diplomatic document with positive recommendations.”⁵⁸

The report, *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools* (the Crick Report), was published in September 1998 for inclusion in a revision of the National Curriculum to take place in 2000.

A second group undertaking a similar review of Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) faced a more difficult task because as a subject their remit covered topics such as sex and drugs education, already contentious issues, their final report was issued in 1999.⁵⁹

The Citizenship curriculum framework was published in 1999 and stressed the importance of the subject:

“Citizenship gives pupils the knowledge, skills and understanding to play an effective role in society at local, national and international levels. It helps them to become informed, thoughtful and responsible citizens who are aware of their duties and rights.”⁶⁰

⁵⁸ Lawton D. (2005) p.127

⁵⁹ Keast, J. and Craft, L. (2010) *Citizenship in the National Curriculum* in Gearon, L. (Ed.) *Learning to Teach Citizenship in the Secondary School*. London. Routledge. pp. 35-36

⁶⁰ DfEE and QCA (1999) *The National Curriculum for England: Citizenship*. Jointly published by Department for Education and Employment Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. p.4

In a further step in 2000 the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) produced a guidance report 'Developing the Global Dimension in the School Curriculum'⁶¹, that set out to show:

“...how a global dimension has been incorporated into the revised National Curriculum, and how it can excite and enrich much of what already happens in schools.”⁶²

The document, issued as guidance to Headteachers, Senior Managers, Governors & LEAs as 'recommended action', outlined for both primary and secondary schools, eight concepts of the Global Dimension:

- Diversity,
- Global Citizenship,
- Conflict Resolution,
- Social Justice,
- Human Rights,
- Interdependence,
- Sustainable Development, and
- Values and Perceptions

and how they could be taught across the revised NC. The guidance was reissued in 2005 by DfES with the same partners when it included Early Years practitioners and teachers in the circulation list and added more detail to the content of each of the eight concepts.

The introduction of Citizenship in the curriculum together with the requirement for schools to have an effective community cohesion programme provided the opportunity for creating new openings in which peace education could, albeit in a different skin, expand in schools.

⁶¹ In partnership with DfID, QCA, The Development Education Association (DEA) and The Central Bureau for International Education and Training(CBIET), a division of the British Council.

⁶² DfEE. (2000): Developing the Global Dimension in the School Curriculum, London. DfEE/DFID/DEA/CBIET /QCA p.1

Chapter 5: Building Blocks: The New Education and World Citizenship movements.

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter and the following one I will be tracing some of the important organisations that promoted forms of peace education in English secondary schools from 1900. I will be examining the way in which they laid the foundations for peace education and showing how they evolved and contributed to peace education in the 21st century.

This period saw not only two episodes of the most violent conflict the world has known but also a growing understanding that education could be a tool for social change. In the eyes of those at the forefront of this movement to do that successfully the concepts of education had to change, there had to be more emphasis on the child and its interaction with the wider world and so developed the focus on 'child-centred' education. This was much more than a change in curriculum content but also a fundamental change in pedagogy that would lead to a transformation in education in England.

5.2 The Early Beginnings.

*"Peace education has come a long way, but its history is not very well known"*¹ and this is no more clearly illustrated than in the understanding of the role of peace education in Great Britain since 1970. One of the long standing critiques of peace education in Great Britain is that it is entrenched in the Cold War period of our history that began with the Yalta Conference in 1945 and is firmly rooted in the politics of the nuclear disarmament movement that grew to prominence in the period immediately following the Second World War. I hope to show in this chapter that while this may have been

¹ Grossi, V. (2000). Peace Education: An Historical Overview (1843-1939). Peace Education Miniprints No. 101. p.3, (Revised version of a paper presented at the World Conference on Higher Education [Paris, France, October 1998]). p.1

the case during the 1950s and 60s, by the end of the 1970s peace education had moved considerably further on in its philosophy and practice.

It can be argued that peace education is one of the longest standing educational subjects in that throughout recorded history societies have attempted to teach their members how to live peaceably with their neighbours.

However two recent historians of peace education give very differing views of its development prior to World War II. Lawson traces its development back to the work of the Czech speaking, Moravian teacher, educator and writer, John Amos Comenius (1592-1670)². Grossi begins with the 19th C as the peace movement began to become more organised, forming radical, campaigning organisations.³ Both, however agree that in the early 20th C peace education was closely linked with the progressive education movement and the social reforms that were taking place across the western hemisphere.

However I believe that modern peace education came of age as an academic discipline in the aftermath of the Great War of 1914-18 (WW1) and was a product of the despair at the huge loss of young lives on all sides together with a determination to ensure that such a conflict never happened again.

The prime aim of those involved was to abolish war and they developed a philosophy of peaceful co-existence as preparation for the Utopia of global peace. Many of the leading philosophers of that time were involved including John Dewey, Aldous Huxley and Bertrand Russell. Dewey was so appalled by the carnage that he became a pacifist. His passionate belief in democracy and the role that education could play in creating and expanding social and political democracy became a cornerstone for educational thinking that is still respected today.

² Lawson, M, (1989). Peace education: Past and present. Educational and Psychological Interactions. School of Education, Malmoe, University of Lund, Sweden.

³ Grossi, V. (2000). Peace Education: An Historical Overview (1843-1939). Peace Education Miniprints No. 101. p.3.

In a debate at the first World Conference of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction held at Keele University in September 1974 Professor Adam Curle in reply to a question about the challenge of teaching peace in a school system that promoted and probably condoned aggressive behaviour said

“If we teach about this educational struggle in educational institutions we run the danger that the heavy hand of bureaucracy, suddenly realising that we are doing something extremely subversive, will come down on us. This is a danger which I personally face and recognise. When the crunch comes we shall have to see what we can do. I really believe that education for peace is in a sense a revolutionary activity.”⁴

In this chapter I will be outlining the development of peace education in English secondary schools and examining the prophetic nature of Curle’s statement. To do this I will examine the roots of the peace education movement from the early 20th Century and its gradual gestation by looking at two separate but interrelated areas, the evolution of new, child-centred teaching methods and then early stages of the introduction of ‘citizenship’ into main stream education. To this end the chapter will focus on the philosophy and work of two NGOs, The New Education Fellowship and the Council for Education for World Citizenship

5.3 New Education, World Citizenship and UNESCO

5.3.1 The New Education Fellowship (NEF)

In the early 1900s there was a growing disenchantment in Europe and the USA with the nature of education that crystallised during WW1. In the latter stages of the war people began to think about what was to follow, the ‘brave new world’ that they hoped would come in the aftermath of the conflict and education was seen as major stepping stone on the way to a more peaceful, progressive society. In all of the main countries involved in the war new, experimental schools began to appear following the philosophies of John Dewey and Francis W Parker in America and Maria Montessori, Edmond Demolins, Ovide Decroly, Edouard Claparede to name a few in Europe. Although their methods of approach differed somewhat they were all focussed on

⁴ Curle, A. (1974): *What can education contribute towards peace and social justice?* In Haavelsrud, M. (ed.) *Education for Peace: Reflection and Action*. IPC Science and Technology Press. Guildford. p. 75

finding better methods of education, moving away from a system where children were expected to be passive and absorbent to one where children became the centre of the process and were active and respected for their contribution. As Boyd wrote “they had in common the ideals of a democratic education, and a faith in freedom as the fundamental condition of the good life in school and society.”⁵

Out of this cauldron of ideas, philosophies and experimentation emerged the New Education Fellowship (NEF). It was formed in 1921 by a small group of forward thinking educationalists and liberal thinkers led amongst others by Beatrice Ensor and Iwan Hawliczek. They shared a common philosophical dissatisfaction with the mainstream educational tenets of the time expressed above. As Ensor later described it the NEF members felt that just reforming the education administrative system was insufficient and that what was required was a total change in the aims of education and the methods of teaching.⁶

The NEF emerged initially from the work of Theosophical Fraternity in Education founded in 1915 but more specifically from a conference organised in 1921 by the Fraternity, held in Calais titled ‘Creative Expression of the Child’. Amongst those attending were several leading thinkers in new education methods including Dr Elizabeth Rotten, working for the League of Nations Union, Dr Adolphe Ferriere of the Bureau des Ecoles Nouvelles, founded in 1899, and Dr Ovide Decroly, originator of the Decroly Method.⁷

In 1920 Ensor became editor of a journal titled ‘Education for the New Era’ and the Fellowship adopted this as its primary source of dissemination, renaming it as ‘The New Era in Home and School’ and printing it in English, German (Das Werdende

⁵ Boyd, W. & Rawson, W (1965); The Story of the New Education. Heinemann, London. p. 2

⁶ Ensor, B. (1921): Why the New Education Fellowship was formed. New Era vol 2 iss 8 pp 219-220

⁷ “The Decroly method was essentially a programme of work based on centres of interest and educative games. Its basic feature was the workshop-classroom, in which children freely went about their own occupations. Behind the complex of individual activities was a carefully organized scheme of work based on an analysis of the fundamental needs of the child. The principle of giving priority to wholes rather than to parts was emphasized in teaching children to read, write, and count, and care was taken to reach a comprehensive view of the experiences of life.”
<http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/179408/education/47650/Child-centred-education>

Zeitalter) and French (Pour L'Ere Nouvelle).⁸ Membership of NEF was by way of subscription to any one of the Journals.

It was a non-political, non-sectarian forum for those interested in progressive education whose main focus was 'child-centred' education. They were as Richardson said

“...interested in nutrition and imagination as well as for rationality, ...cooperation and collaboration as well as individual study,...choice as well as direction,...self-directed learning and dialogue as well as ‘chalk-and-talk’”⁹

However NEF also embraced the concepts of education as a tool for social reform, the expansion of democratic process and government, the expansion of world citizenship and international understanding, all of which they saw as vital to the process of achieving a world peace.

The original principles outlined at the Calais conference included: that “The essential object of all education should be to train the child to desire the supremacy of spirit over matter and to express that supremacy in daily life.” (Aim 1), that whatever the education method used the discipline applied should respect the individuality of the child (2), that the school curriculum should be constructed so as to develop the innate interests of the child (3), that “selfish competition should be discouraged” and be substituted with a spirit of co-operation and that there should be mixed sex classes with equal opportunity of education between the sexes (5 & 6) and that properly conducted, new education would develop the child as a citizen not only able to fulfil his duties to humanity as a whole but also recognising the common dignity of all people (7) ¹⁰.

Initially the organisation was managed by an international council comprising of Ensor, her secretary Clare Soper and two European Directors Ferrière and Rotten. The intention was that the organisation of NEF would be flexible and that countries would

⁸ White, M.H. (2001): The New Education Fellowship: An international community of practice. New Era in Education Vol. 82 No. 3 pp 71-75

⁹ Richardson R. (1986): The World Studies Story. – A paper prepared in support of conferences in 1985, 86 about the Schools Council World Studies Project. Sourced from Richardson's personal files in 2012.

¹⁰Institute of Education Archives, University of London, WEF/A/I/43 Annual Reports 1932-1967

be encouraged to set up their own independent sections that would respond to local conditions and cultures rather than some central diktat.

The organisation quickly grew and by 1929 to meet the growing demand and responsibilities a Consultative Committee was appointed as the administrative body of the Fellowship and the international council remained in an advisory capacity. In 1931 the Consultative Committee became the Executive Board and in 1932 the International Headquarters moved to London.

Whilst 'Education for the New Era' was the main organ for disseminating their ideas they also held a series of well attended conferences organised around the central themes of New Education and drew large audiences from all sectors of the educational world as well as those from the periphery that had an interest in education.

NEF conferences and attendances 1921-1936¹¹

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Table 4. NEF conferences and attendances 1921-1936.

The Fellowship also organised a series of conferences in the Commonwealth countries of South Africa (1934), New Zealand (July 1937) and Australia (August/September 1937).

Although during World War II the organisation was suppressed by some totalitarian regimes in Europe it continued its work elsewhere, organising conferences such as in

¹¹ Brehony, K J. (2004); *A New Education for a New Era: The Contribution of the Conferences of the New Education Fellowship to the Disciplinary Field of Education 1921-1938*. *Paedagogica Historica* Vol 40, Nos 5 & 6. p.734

Oxford (1941) and the 8th World Conference in Michigan (1941). The conference in Ann Arbor, Michigan drew over two thousand delegates and formed the basis for a conference held in London in 1942, jointly organised by the English Section and the International Headquarters¹². This conference titled the 'Children's Charter Conference' was equally well supported with representatives from 19 country sections/groups and delegates from both UK LEAs and major educational institutions¹³.

The clauses of the Charter were as follows:

1. The personality of the child is sacred; and the needs of the child must be the foundation of any good educational system.
2. The right of every child to proper food, clothing and shelter shall be accepted as a first charge on the resources of the nation.
3. For every child, there shall always be available medical attention and treatment.
4. All children shall have equal opportunity of access to the nation's stores of knowledge and wisdom.
5. There shall be full-time schooling for every child.
6. Religious training should be available to all children¹⁴.

Following the end of the WW2 the NEF began a revival of its world-wide sections, many of which had either disbanded or been forced underground during the conflict and by the end of 1946 there were twenty-six sections or groups actively at work.¹⁵

In the UK, the NEF entered a new phase, the English section, established in 1927,¹⁶ had grown stronger during the war with twenty-three branches and "it enjoyed a reputation for sane idealism and practical sense amongst educators and educational organisations."¹⁷ Educational research was a growing academic area and as we saw in

¹²Institute of Education Archives, University of London, WEF/A/III/198 USA Conference, Ann Arbor

¹³ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, WEF/A/IV/235 Children's Charter Project 1942

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ Boyd. W. (1965) . p.131

¹⁶ Aldrich, R. (2009): The New Education and The Institute of Education, University of London, 1919-1945. *Paedagogica Historica*. Vol 45, Nos. 4-5, pp.485 - 502

¹⁷ Boyd W. (1965). p. 137

the previous chapter there was a growing acceptance of child-centred teaching methods.

Towards the end of the 1950s however the Fellowship recognised that it needed to broaden its international base and at a meeting of the International Council in 1962 laid the foundations for a reorganisation that took place early in 1963. (As a final step in this process, in 1966, NEF changed its name to The World Education Fellowship (WEF)).

Amongst the changes that took place was the creation of the honorary, part-time post of International Secretary that was filled by Dr. James Henderson of the London University Institute of Education. As we will see in the next chapter Henderson became one of the driving forces behind the concept of 'World Studies' and 'The New Era', for a period of time in the 1970s also carried the content of 'The World Studies Journal'.

Today the WEF is a shadow of its former self, reduced to a rump of international sections, 'New Era' has not been published for some time and the English section appears to have ceased operation around 2007/2008. In its time however it was an influential organisation, driving forward new pedagogic practices that were to transform education tradition and thinking not only in England but throughout the world. Jenkins listed five ways in which the NEF was unique in creating a new expansive foundation in education:

- It created an international, intellectual field that extended from 1919 to the present.
- It brought together a wide range of professions, some of which had only been on the periphery of educational thinking that included teachers, teacher-trainers, academics, administrators, psychologists and psychiatrists.
- It had connections with the state administration at both local level through the membership and national level by representation on government committees.

- It achieved international recognition through its support of the League of Nations educational wing and by its member's involvement in the formation of UNESCO,
- Finally, it broke new ground by gaining world-wide recognition that education should embrace all aspects of the child's life, including its home and parents.¹⁸

In England they were successful in transforming educational practice, particularly in the early years, primary sector, by introducing child-centred reforms that were widely accepted not only by teachers but also by educational strategists at local and national level. There was a growing involvement of parents in both the social life and the management of schools that was to continue right up to the present and it can be argued that the present coalition Government's 'Free School' programme is an extension of NEF's work.¹⁹

Underpinning all of NEF's work there was the belief that education, as a primary agency for social change, could also be a primary agency for world peace and international tolerance by producing involved citizens that were aware of the wider world and their role within it.²⁰

5.3.2 World Citizenship

In a similar vein another influential organisation grew out of the desire for change and the determination that the world should not be visited by another catastrophic conflict.

As the First World War was coming to an end President Woodrow Wilson delivered a speech to a Joint Session of Congress on 8th January 1918 titled 'Fourteen Points for

¹⁸ Jenkins, C.(2000): New Education and its emancipator interests (1920-1950). In history of education. Vol. 29, No.2 , pp 139-151

¹⁹ Free Schools are state-aided schools that can set their own pay and conditions for staff; employ subject specialists that are not qualified teachers; have an element of independence over their admission policy; set own curriculum; set the length of the school day and terms; and are semi-independent and outside of local authority control. <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/education-14747635>

²⁰ Jenkins, C. (2000). P.147

Peace' that had as its final point: "a general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike."²¹

Supported by other Allied Leaders the idea was incorporated into the peace treaties signed at the end of the War and came into formal existence when the Treaty of Versailles was ratified on 10th January 1920.

However, the term 'League of Nations' had been in general use before being adopted by Wilson, for example in Great Britain The League of Nations Society (LNS) was formed in 1916 with the express purpose of creating a 'League of Nations' at the end of the war. It saw such an organisation as being a body that would settle disputes between its members, police the observance of international treaties and provide a structure for mutual defence. In 1918 David Davies, a Welsh millionaire and MP, dissatisfied with what he saw as the lack of progress of the LNS formed the League of Free Nations Society and on 13th October, 1918 the organisations amalgamated to form The League of Nations Union (LNU).

The LNU grew rapidly and had nearly 100,000 supporters (paying members and affiliates) by the beginning of 1920²² and reached over 400,000 at its peak in 1931.²³

The LNU also published a monthly newsletter that had the aim of promoting "a corporate spirit And to educate them to a right sense of world citizenship."²⁴

In 1934, probably at the summit of its popularity the LNU was the instigator of a 'National Peace Ballot' that was held in the autumn of 1934. The results of the ballot were announced in the late summer of 1935 and it is not surprising that given rising

²¹ http://www.lib.byu.edu/index.php/President_Wilson's_Fourteen_Points. accessed 14th April 2011

²² LSE RLNU, F 2/9: LNU Annual Report, 1928, Graph Showing Increase of Membership of the League of Nations Union, 1/1/1919 to 31/12/1928.

²³ Heater, D. (1984): *Peace through Education: The Contribution of the Council for Education in World Citizenship*. Falmer Press. London. p.33

²⁴ LSE RLNU, F 4/2: "Proposed New Monthly Journal," Minutes, Finance Committee, 1926-1929, 12 Mar. 1926.

international tensions the answers were heavily in favour of 'peaceful' solutions, as can be seen in table 5 below:

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Table 5: Result of the Peace Ballot 1934-35²⁵

There can be little doubt that the LNU was a highly effective organisation and it soon became the most influential peace organisation in the country. It saw education as one of the main areas to focus its efforts on and formed an Education Committee towards the end of 1919. In order to promote what became known as "League of Nations teaching" in the country's schools, lessons in the school curriculum and extra-curricular activities were widely utilised that had a lasting impact on British schools.²⁶ The main aims of the "teachings" were to transmit knowledge about the League, and, more broadly, to improve the level of international knowledge and understanding. It was also reflection of an increase in progressive educational thinking during this period and this was reflected in the creation of a new group that would have a significant impact on the development of peace education in the future.

²⁵ Ceadel, M: *'The First British Referendum: The Peace Ballot, 1934-1935'*, English Historical Review (1980) Vol. XCV (CCCLXXVII). Pp 810-839.

²⁶ Cannon J. A. (1997) *League of Nations* in *The Oxford Companion to British History*, Oxford University Press, p. 567.

Throughout this period the League of Nations itself was in serious decline. Three major conflicts had shown that the League was incapable of enforcing the concept of collective security, the cornerstone of its foundation and so questioned its very existence.

In September 1931 Japan launched an invasion of Manchuria leading to an American demand that the League should assert its authority and pressurise Japan to withdraw. This it abjectly failed to do, prevaricating until finally it accepted the Lytton Commission Report in 1933, and a direct consequence was Japan withdrawing from the League. The League had failed in its first real test as custodian of world security.²⁷ As this conflict rumbled on so a second test arrived. In late 1934 tensions rose between Italy and Abyssinia, both members of the League, that culminated in an Italian invasion in October 1935. Once again the League proved ineffective in preventing conflict, it was incapable of brokering a peace agreement and lacked the military wherewithal to intervene. By the time that the Spanish Civil war began in 1936 the League was in total disarray with regard to its security role and its effective collapse came with the German invasion of Austria in 1938.

All of this had led to a re-evaluation of the League's role that had a direct effect on the LNU which appeared to be moving gradually from its stance of objective education towards advocating rearmament with the main thrust of its activities appearing to be one of political propaganda promoting this. The effect of this was that as the organisation became more political and controversial so local authorities, teachers' groups and schools left in large numbers, such that by 1939 membership had fallen to 641 schools from a peak of around 1400.²⁸

“Shaking off their earlier regard for pacifist sensitivities, LNU leaders moved to commit the organisation to a tougher stance on the use of military sanctions

²⁷ The Lytton Commission, headed by V. A. G. R. Bulwer-Lytton (UK) with representatives from the USA, Germany, Italy and France was appointed on 22nd December 1931. The intention was to defuse the situation in Manchuria but in the end due to (a) the time it took to produce the report, over a year, (b) its failure to address the root causes of the conflict and (c) its refusal to condemn Japanese aggression the report highlighted the weaknesses of the League and its inability to enforce its decisions. <http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,744562,00.html> accessed 12th July 2012

²⁸ Heater, D. (1984): pp 41-43

against law-breakers, backed rearmament to this end and proved themselves prepared at last to criticise openly the foreign policy of the National Government, which was led from May 1937 by Neville Chamberlain.”²⁹

The LNU’s Education Committee, under the Chairmanship of Professor Gilbert Murray, were becoming both dismayed and disillusioned by the position of the LNU and the effect this was having on their work. They began to question the way in which the outside world would view their objectivity and so, in November 1939, they effectively presented the Executive Committee of the LNU with an ultimatum to either exercise restraint in the controversial policies it was promoting or see the Education Committee disband and reform as an independent organisation. Finally, on 5th June 1939 the Education Committee met for the last time, an interim Committee carried on the work until January 1940 when the name Council for Education for World Citizenship was formally adopted.³⁰

“The main purpose of the Council is to promote throughout the educational system such studies and teaching as may best contribute to mutual understanding, peace, cooperation and goodwill between all peoples and lead to the building of a world commonwealth.”³¹

The members of the Council were, to an extent, conscious that the term ‘World Citizenship’ had connotations that were not necessarily in tune with general thinking at the time, as C. W. Judd, the Council’s Secretary, wrote:

“The Englishman is not eager for either organisation or co-operation; he is suspicious of internationalism, and freezes at the word ‘intellectual’. His reaction to the phrase ‘Education in World Citizenship’ is somewhat similar and needs to be met with plain acknowledged truths and practical arguments.”³²

In the same document he goes on to define what the Council understands by the term ‘World Citizenship’:

“By world citizenship we do not mean a legal or constitutional status, like the citizenship of a city or state. We are not discussing proposals for any form of world-state or world-federation or confederation of States. We mean a habit of

²⁹ McCarthy, H. (2011): *The British People and the League of Nations*. Manchester University Press. Manchester. p.212

³⁰ Heater, D.(1984) pp 44-46

³¹ National Archives. E 121/28. Council for Education in World Citizenship: Articles of Constitution., 14th April 1940

³² National Archives. ED 121/28 “Education in World Citizenship: Our Single Aim” November 1941, Revised February 1942

the mind and will. Under modern conditions all mankind are increasingly members one of another. The citizen of the world, in our use of the term, not only recognises this inescapable condition of modern life but consents to it with his will and is prepared to order his own conduct as to assist in making this perpetual interaction a blessing and not a curse to mankind.”³³

To this end CEWC focussed on working with teachers and others in the education establishment and doing this initially by organising a series of conferences. The first of these were held at Oxford in the Easter period, 1940 and was attended by around 200 teachers and educational administrators. This was followed by a second conference, also in Oxford, in January 1941. Much more international in flavour, the conference aim was to discuss wartime educational problems, particularly in the enemy-occupied countries. Nearly 70 people attended and included representatives from Belgium, Czechoslovakia (sic), France, Norway, Poland and South Africa. What also was apparent from the report of the Board of Education³⁴ observer attending was the CEWC’s desire to obtain co-operation from the Board to the extent that the Observer recorded in her report, “it is persistent and even embarrassing in its desire for friendship.”³⁵

This drive for recognition and approval continued and a report to the Board by CEWC in 1942 outlined the principle aspects of their work. This included issuing messages and leaflets to schools on Armistice and Empire Day written by people such as the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Secretary of State for War and the Ambassador of the USA. The leaflets, some 30,000 in total, were sent to all public and secondary schools, bought and circulated by LEAs. They used circular letters to the LEAs to promote the work of organisations that were members of CEWC as well as “carefully prepared lists of books on different aspects of international affairs etc.” In addition, they supplied schools and colleges with speakers, planning syllabuses and discussion material and

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ Created by the 1899 Board of Education Act this was to be the government department responsible for education and was formed by combining the Education Department and the Department of Science and Art. Amongst other things it was responsible for the inspection of schools and creating and maintaining a register of qualified teachers.

³⁵ National Archives. ED 121/74. Report by Mrs E.A. Parkes, Board of Education Observer at the CEWC Conference, Oxford. January 1941

had encouraged the growth of school clubs and societies with 250 affiliated to CEWC, including some in primary schools.³⁶

In September 1941 they were invited to become part of the London International Assembly (LIA), a semi-official body formed with the backing of the LNU. The assembly set up commissions to study and report on such things as, methods of political warfare, proposals for the trial of war criminals, future security against war and social and economic reconstruction. CEWC had agreed to putting in place a Joint Commission (No. 5) on 'The Place of Education, Religion, Science and Learning in Post-War Reconstruction' and perhaps showing the increasing regard in which they were held Gilbert Murray, chairman of CEWC was appointed Chairman of the Commission and Judd its secretary.

In March 1945 the Commission published "Education and the United Nations", a 54 page report that dealt with the destruction and reconstruction of war-torn Europe and the Far East, the need for re-education, particularly in Germany and a proposal for establishing an International Organisation for Education. The report was well received and CEWC was asked to continue this work for a further year.

As the need for government recognition continued CEWC made its first appeal to the Ministry of Education for a grant in 1947. Prior to then its accounts show that it was funded by a series of grants from various educational bodies and in particular by the United Nations Association (UNA).³⁷ Formed in 1945 the UNA grew out of the LNU and to a degree pre-dates the United Nations, in that it held its first meeting before the UN Charter was agreed and signed.

"The first meeting of the 'United Nations Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland' took place on 7 June 1945 at 11 Maiden Lane (the LNU offices near Covent Garden). Lord Cecil was present at this meeting of 21 members, as was Mr Charles W. Judd who was to become the first Director General."

³⁶ National archive. ED 121/28. Report to the President of the Board of Education on some principle aspects of the Council's Work. March 23rd 1942

³⁷ National Archive ED 121/112 Council For Education in World Citizenship: Historical Note

It is worth noting here the role Mr Judd played in both CEWC and the UNA as it signifies the extremely close relationship between the two organisations at the time to the extent that CEWC considered itself an integral part of the UNA as shown on its headed note paper that contained the by-line: “An organisation of the United Nations Association”. This was a relationship that was to continue well into the future.

The request for the grant was being favourably considered when the UNA intervened, stating quite plainly that it did not wish to see either itself or “its offspring” accepting money from the Government. The UNA’s stance was that accepting grants from any government department would appear to show that it was no longer independent or, more importantly, impartial. The UNA undertook to fund CEWC for the future and so no further consideration was given to the grant application. This situation did not last for long however as in October 1948 CEWC made a new application on the grounds that the UNA was unable to meet its undertaking and finally on 25th November 1948 CEWC received its first grant from the government of £1,250 for the financial year 1948/49 to assist with the cost of running The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) competitions in schools.³⁸

Thus was to start a long and somewhat acrimonious relationship between CEWC and the Ministry of Education. Annually CEWC sought renewal of the grant, often raising questions within government on whether CEWC should remain on the list of grant receiving bodies. Several times the grant was reduced only to be restored to its former level a year or two later. The primary argument was that CEWC’s work with UNESCO could be stretched to be seen to covering the government’s responsibilities to the UN and in particular educating school children in the role and importance of the UN to world peace and stability.

There was however, exasperation regularly expressed by ministerial aides that CEWC did not stretch itself and could do a great deal better by raising more money from schools and LEAs although the same document reports that there were 1350 schools and 30 training colleges affiliated to CEWC. There was also an element of cynicism

³⁸ Ibid.

that every time CEWC asked for more money it is “usually forecasting a deficit for the year or concerned with the position for the coming financial year. So far the forecast heavy deficit has not materialised.”³⁹

Perhaps of more significance was the observation in one Minute Paper⁴⁰ that CEWC was perceived to be good value for money and that “...we would not at present wish to discontinue the grant to the council, we consider it to be payment for services rendered which otherwise we would have to perform for ourselves or find some other organisation to perform for us.”⁴¹ And presumably at a greater cost.

From analysing the various annual accounts, it can be seen that the grant at that time was quite small with regard to CEWC’s total income. It would seem that in terms of the greater financial detail the amount of the grant was perhaps less important than the public recognition that came with it together with access to the Ministry and, often, the Minister of the day.

There can be little doubt that, irrespective of the view inside of the Ministry, CEWC was an extremely active and effective organisation particularly in promoting discussion and debate amongst students. The regular requests for funds to the Minister were accompanied by the Annual Report for the particular year ending and this would catalogue in great detail the organisation’s activities in schools and other youth organisations.

These would include items such as:

- 1. The Annual Christmas Holiday Lectures** (later to be called Conferences).

These were usually held in the New Year at the Methodist Central Hall Westminster (also known as the Central Hall Westminster, or just Central Hall) and began in January 1944. Run under the general heading “Tomorrow’s Citizens” and primarily aimed at 6th form students they ran for four or five days

³⁹ Ibid

⁴⁰ Minute Papers are short, concise briefing papers written to provide the Minister with the relevant facts to respond to a particular issue.

⁴¹ Ibid

and for an organisation of CEWC's size and dependency on volunteers were a massive undertaking. Central Hall could hold around 2700 attendees and with students travelling in from abroad as well as from all over the country then accommodation and travel arrangements were complex and demanding. The Lectures also placed a strain on CEWC's administrative organisation with the collection of fees, printing of programmes and general publicity material all greatly increased from the normal workload.

However, CEWC rose to the challenge and the Lectures were events that made the organisation famous internationally as well as nationally.⁴²

The intention was for the Lectures to provide the opportunity for students to consider debate and discuss international political issues with eminent political and social leaders of the day. From the start they set out to be more than just the students listening to the speakers so each lecture was followed by a question and answer session and each day there would be discussion groups, both elements allowing the students to take an active part in the proceedings. These sessions were much appreciated by the students as can be seen from various reports made by students

"The Conference was divided into four groups: Cultural, Social, Political and Economic. Each group was sub-divided into four discussion groups and these groups each tackled a problem about North America An important part of the conference was question time, of which great use was made, and as the lectures ran to a strict time schedule, there were always some questions that were left unanswered."⁴³

And

"....the more important political aspects of the change in Africa were explored. These raised many startling and direct questions from the audience, and provided the speakers with lively topics for discussion, especially between Miss Hannah Stranton, Mr. Joshua Nkomo, President in exile, Southern Rhodesian African National Congress, M.C.L. Vambe, and Mr. Alee Dickson. The members of the audience were never afraid to put

⁴² Heater, D. (1984): pp 157 - 166

⁴³ Thornbury Grammar School Magazine July 1957 at <http://www.thornburygrammar.org.uk/images/Thornburian/Thornburian57.pdf>

their questions frankly and bluntly to the speakers: in fact the conferences were noted for their frankness.”⁴⁴

There can be little doubt that one major strength of the Conferences was the quality of the speakers who were prepared not only to talk but they allowed themselves to be subject to the aggressive questioning mentioned above. Over the years speakers included, for example:

Dr. Gilbert Murray O.M., Leary Constantine and James Griffiths, MP (1953), Selwyn Lloyd MP and Clement Attlee (1955), Lord Hailsham (1957), Dr. Solly Zuckerman (1959), Iain Macleod, M.P. and Mr. Joshua Nkomo (1960), Miss Shirley Williams MP (1961), Benjamin Britten, Vanessa Redgrave (1965).⁴⁵ In 1965 for example the opening speaker was Lord Caradon, Britain’s Permanent Representative to the UN and the BBC’s Overseas Service recorded several lectures for broadcast.⁴⁶

Gradually though the attendances began to decline,⁴⁷ perhaps partly due to increasing costs of attendance and perhaps more importantly to the growing influence of the media, in particular television. It was no longer necessary for students to travel to see prominent speakers when they could be seen in the comfort of the students’ own homes. Events around the world were available almost as they happened and discussion within the media involved a wider spectrum of opinion than could be assembled for a few days in London.⁴⁸

The last Christmas Holiday Lecture season was held in January 1975 when the attendance fell to 900 students and the main hall at Westminster was less than half full. They were replaced by an Annual conference that ran for one day and these finally came to an end in 1986.

⁴⁴ Hemsworth Grammar School: Report on the 1960 conference: ‘Something out of Africa.’ <http://www.hemsworthgrammarschool.org/Downloadable%20Files/Council%20for%20Education%20in%20World%20Citizenship.pdf>

⁴⁵ See the various Annual Reports at LSE Archives CEWC/392 Annual Reports

⁴⁶ National Archives. ED 121/112. CEWC Annual Report 1965-66. P.1

⁴⁷ Heater, D. (1984). p.165

⁴⁸ LSE Archives. CEWC/382. Annual Report 1977. Introduction.

2. PEN FRIENDS.

The concept of international pen friends was not new but was one enthusiastically embraced by CEWC.

During WW1 personal contacts were established between the children in the USA through the American Junior Red Cross and those in some of the invaded countries.⁴⁹ In 1919 the French government, recognising the educational and cultural value of these exchanges set up the Bureau of International School Correspondence (ISC) to extend the process. Contacts were made first with the USA and then Great Britain via the LNU which then passed to CEWC on its formation.

At the end of WW2 the concept was extended to cover exchange visits between children and ISC set up the Fédération Internationale des Organisations de Correspondances et d'Echanges Scolaires (FIOCES) and by August 1947 a formal agreement between UNESCO and FIOCES was being drawn up.

CEWC had continued to promote pen friends during WW2 and the 1944 Annual report records that around 5000 friendships had been established between children in the UK and the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.⁵⁰ By 1946 this had increased to 17000 and in 1947 the workload reached such a level that CEWC set up the Overseas Correspondence Department to meet the demand. In 1947 it dealt with nearly 20,000 requests embracing 23 countries and over

⁴⁹ "World War I inspired an official organization for young people: the American Junior Red Cross. Students knit scarves, rolled bandages and built furniture for hospitals and convalescent homes. They prepared and sent Friendship Boxes containing school and personal items to students overseas."

See <http://www.redcross.org/about-us/history/red-cross-american-history/contributions-young-americans>

⁵⁰ LSE Archives. CEWC/382. Annual report 1944 p.5

the next few years continued similar levels.⁵¹ The work continued right through to 1959 when it was discontinued due a cut in the government grant.⁵²

3. Publications.

Almost from its birth CEWC saw its main function as the dissemination of information to teachers, colleges and schools, continuing and building upon the work started by the LNU.

They set out to supply schools with books on international affairs by making available the LNU's extensive library. The library had been funded by the Carnegie foundation and had been built up over many years. Teachers, schools, LEAs and others could borrow parcels of up to thirty books for a term.⁵³ In 1949 CEWC accepted responsibility for the distribution of United Nations publications to educational establishments throughout the UK (this was in part an attempt to secure funding from the Ministry). As the Annual report for 1949-50 reveals the results were impressive. 169 LEAs agreed to distribute posters and leaflets to over 12000 schools and youth groups. 1650 schools and clubs placed individual orders and in Northern Ireland material was sent to 1700 schools that came under the authority of the local Ministry of Education. CEWC estimated that taking into account some duplication, over 15000 schools received literature and film strips. In the lead up to United Nations Day (12th October) some 30,000 copies of a special UN day poster were distributed.⁵⁴ In 1950 CEWC took part in a joint venture with the News Chronicle and UNESCO to publish and circulate a series of articles, pamphlets and visual aids on a journey made by Ritchie Calder, Science Editor of the 'News Chronicle' through the deserts of North Africa, Egypt and Palestine in early 1950. The literature followed his journey and highlighted aspects of interest in different areas of the school curriculum such as science, history, geography and religion. The work

⁵¹ These and other figures are taken from the CEWC Annual Reports held in the LSE Archives reference CEWC/382

⁵² LSE Archives. CEWC/95 Annual Report 1960.

⁵³ The National Archives. ED 121/28. Report to the President of the Board of Education. 23rd March 1942.

⁵⁴ LSE Archives CEWC/382 Annual report 31st March 1950

continued into 1950 as CEWC arranged a series of lectures and briefing conferences where Calder addressed teachers and pupils in over 15 centres throughout the UK.⁵⁵

In 1947 CEWC was producing a series of monthly 'International News Sheets' each one focussing on a topical issue of the time such as the Economic crisis, the Marshall Plan and World Food. In 1954 these were replaced by a less academic, more accessible newsletter titled 'Current Affairs Roundabout', which in turn was replaced in 1955 by an eight page monthly newspaper, 'News Club' that continued until 1965 when it was superseded by 'World' in 1965. Whilst both latter publications were well received by the teaching profession neither were economically viable and 'World' folded in 1967. 'World' was replaced by the 'Broadsheet' series, organised and often written by Margaret Quass they continued the theme of concentrating on issues of the time but were more lesson-orientated. Issued bi-monthly they continued almost up to the effective demise of CEWC in 2001.

CEWC's publication work was not limited to just the various newsletters as over its lifetime it produced a series of booklets. For example in 1977 it produced a 32 page 'World Studies Resource Guide' aimed at providing teachers with details on organisations and teaching aids in this growing area of work. Edited by Paul Long, it was so successful that, with funding from the Ministry of Overseas Development and the Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust it was reprinted in 1980 and again in 1984.

4. Speakers and School Conferences

Publications and newsletters were only one side of the process of dissemination, running alongside them was CEWC's work in organising meetings and conferences, both in schools and in the wider environment.

⁵⁵ UNESCO. Seminar on Education for World Citizenship with special reference to the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. 3-30 August 1952, Woudschoten, Netherlands. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001445/144509eb.pdf> and National Archive ED 121/798 Annual Report 1950 p.5

CEWC also prided itself on its ability to provide speakers on any subject within its remit. For example in 1949/50 apart from the Christmas Holiday lectures referred to above conferences lasting from one to three days were organised on subjects such as 'Human Rights', 'Food and People', 'Atomic Energy', 'Aid to the Underdeveloped Areas of the World' and 'Colonial Affairs'. Although these were aimed primarily at 6th form pupils CEWC also ran conferences for the 13-15 age groups drawn from secondary-modern schools. In June 1950 over 1000 pupils from 50 schools around the country spent a day studying 'America' and in November a similar number attended a conference on 'India'.⁵⁶ Teachers were not forgotten and in the same year a conference on 'Human rights' was held at Hoddesdon, Hertfordshire and with funding from UNESCO international conferences were held in Paris at Easter and Geneva during the summer holiday period.⁵⁷

Where schools or LEAs organised their own local events then CEWC was often called upon to supply speakers, a process that whilst generally successful, it was occasionally subject to criticism of bias etc. Typical of this was correspondence between Enoch Powell, MP for Wolverhampton South West and Florence Horsburgh, who had been appointed Minister for Education in 1952. Powell's complaint, accompanied by a press cutting from the Wolverhampton Express and Star newspaper, concerned a CEWC Wolverhampton Branch conference organised in school hours and addressed by the Secretary of the Fabian Colonial Bureau. Powell's complaint was that (whilst)

"I know nothing of the Council for Education in World Citizenship but assume from its name that it can be no other than left-wing or probably Communist. In any case, education in world citizenship, if there is such a thing, like any other necessary subjects of education ought presumably to be provided through the medium of schools and not outside bodies."⁵⁸

⁵⁶ National Archives ED 121/796. Annual Report 1950. p.3

⁵⁷ Ibid p.4

⁵⁸ National Archives ED 121/796. Letter E. Powell MP to the Minister for Education 29th March 1952

Powell went on to opine that he felt sure that such an opportunity to address school children would not be extended to either the Conservative Research Department or Central Office. Horsburgh, having taken advice from both her department and CEWC, replied outlining the history and background of CEWC and that it was at the discretion of the LEA that the conference took place within school hours that allowed Powell to continue to argue that the conference had been 'partisan' in its content. She responded to this pointing out that the children attending the conference had also been supplied with material from the Conservative Central Office.⁵⁹

Similarly in February 1953 Major Tufton Beamish, MP for Lewes, wrote complaining about CEWC inviting the Polish Ambassador to speak at a conference titled 'Europe 1953' and that it was "undesirable that Communist propaganda should be put across to adolescent minds"⁶⁰

Again discussion between ministerial aides refuted the allegation pointing out to the Minister that the same session also had speakers from the American and Indonesian governments. One minute note did however observe, perhaps somewhat wryly, that "We get periodical complaints about CEWC and they are sometimes not very tactful in their choice of speakers."⁶¹

The criticism did not have any noticeable impact on CEWC's work in this area, the Annual Reports record that more than 300 speakers had been supplied in 1957, 326 in 1962 and so on. It was to continue right through the final death throes of the organisation, the Annual report of 1996 commented that for all of its many problems more than 10,000 students took part in CEWC organised events during the year.

⁵⁹ National Archives ED 121/796. Reply letter 3rd April 1952 and Minute 2nd May 1952.

⁶⁰ National Archives ED 121/796. Letter Tufton Beamish MP to the Minister 4th February 1953

⁶¹ National Archives ED 121/796 Minute paper 7th February 1953

It does appear however that CEWC did not get embroiled in the controversial debates concerning World Studies and Peace Education raised by Scruton and Cox in their papers written for the Institute for European Defence and Strategic Studies in 1984/85. (More on these in chapter 7).

For all of its good work however CEWC continued to be subject to funding problems. In 1977 the UNA withdrew its entire grant to the organisation and although CEWC did attract alternative funding sources such as sponsorship from Lloyds Bank by the end of the 1985/86 financial year over 40% of its income was still from central government grants for which CEWC had to make 16 separate grant applications. It was becoming more and more dependent on the unpaid work of its volunteers after all of the staff, apart from the Director, left in February and March 1986, (some were replaced but there were still fewer numbers of paid staff after the recruitment process was completed).⁶² In 1990 central office staff was reduced to the Director and a part-time administrator. After an extensive examination and review lasting nearly two years the Department of Education and Science (DES) proposed that CEWC become part of the DES Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges thus ensuring its financial security for the time being.⁶³ As part of the process CEWC became a charitable trust whose trustees were the trustees of the Central Bureau although policy and supervision were still the responsibility of CEWC's Director. In 1993 the Central Bureau was merged with the British Council and it was decided that CEWC would discontinue the link with the DES Central Bureau so on 1st April 1993 the trusteeship of CEWC was transferred to its Executive Board and the organisation was once more on its own. However life was not to be kind and a major blow came in 1996 when after another review the Department of Education decided to phase out its funding totally over the next three years, CEWC was left to its own devices, to sink or swim as may be.⁶⁴

Over the coming years there was a continuing erosion of core funding and in 1999 CEWC was once again forced to cut back on its staff and so took steps to transform

⁶² LSE Archive CEWC/95 Annual Report 1986

⁶³ LSE Archive CEWC/95 Bi-Annual Report 1990

⁶⁴ LSE Archive CEWC/95. Annual Report 1996

itself by becoming a company limited by guarantee. There was a sense of optimism however that the inclusion of Citizenship into the curriculum would revive its fortunes.

This was to prove a forlorn hope and in December 2000 the Executive Board took the drastic step of suspending all operations. The decision was forced because they were heading for a substantial deficit at the end of the year and it was hoped that by retaining a small amount of £1709 in reserve at March 2002 then there would be some possibility of resurrection in the future.⁶⁵ To this end it was proposed to hold a Phoenix 2 meeting (Phoenix 1 was the original meeting in 1939 that created CEWC) All CEWC archive material was to be stored at CEWC Cymru.

The Phoenix 2 meeting, 'World Citizenship; the weakest link', was held on 26th March 2002 at the London Institute of Education. In the chair was Geoff Whitty, then Director of the London Institute of Education, also involved were Margaret Quass, former Director of CEWC, Peter Hayes, Director of Education at Community Service Volunteers, Doug Bourn, Director of the Development Education Agency and Vince Cable MP along with thirty other invited guests. There was considerable discussion about what CEWC stood for and whether there was a need for it. Whitty commented that 'if it did not exist it would have to be invented', Bourn believed that no new organisation was needed but what was needed was better co-ordination between existing organisations but perhaps the most telling comment came from Lee Jerome of the Institute for Citizenship when he stated that all of the obvious niches had now been filled by the Standing Committee on Education in World Citizenship and the Association for Citizenship Teachers and concluded by asking what use would new CEWC be?⁶⁶

Despite the somewhat negative response to Phoenix 2 meeting, work continued under the leadership of Titus Alexander and Richard Ennals. At a working group meeting held on 23rd November 2003 it was decided that the Executive board was to be restructured

⁶⁵ LSE Archive CEWC/348 Minutes of Executive board meeting on 22nd Nov 2001 and accounts 31st March 2002

⁶⁶ LSE Archive CEWC 348. The Phoenix 2 Report . 26th March 2002

so as to look to re-launching CEWC at the North of England Education Conference 8th Jan 2003. There would be a three-phase, three year renewal strategy culminating in the creation of a 'virtual college'. The offices at St John Lyon House had been cleared and a new office created at Alexander's house. - "We are now making a fresh start" and Alexander would work unpaid through set-up period.

Virtually none of this was to happen however and towards the end of 2003 Alexander was engaged in a series of discussions with Mathew Pike the director of the Scarman Trust and in February 2004 a joint proposal was signed that would see CEWC becoming part of "the Scarman family of organisations as a network college for learning active citizenship to address the root causes of social problems, from local to global.". CEWC would continue to have its own distinct identity and focus on developing and running courses in partnership with Scarman and others. It would concentrate on creating a network of facilitators, trainers and educators to support active learning for democratic citizenship, whilst Scarman would be represented on the CEWC board and provide funding for agreed programmes of work. It was intended that the new organisation would start work in July 2004. Alexander would become a full-time employee and Scarman would fund CEWC through Kingston University.⁶⁷

Again this was to come to nought and CEWC continued to limp along working on various small projects under the leadership of Richard Ennals. In 2003 former director Margaret Quass died, leaving a generous legacy to CEWC enabling the organisation to reform under the directorship of Les Stratton.⁶⁸ Over the next five years CEWC continued working on various citizenship programmes most of which had specific funding but was still unable to obtain on-going funding for its central organisation structure and infrastructure cost. Reluctantly the Executive Board came to the inevitable conclusion that CEWC was no longer a viable organisation. After extensive discussions with the Citizenship Foundation, with which CEWC had worked on the

⁶⁷ LSE Archives CEWC/316 Strategy document 10th February 2004

⁶⁸ LSE Archives CEWC 316 A Brief History of CEWC John Waddleton, vice- Chair February 2007

Citizenship Curriculum in the 1990s, it was agreed that the two organisations would merge and so in August 2008 they became one.⁶⁹

5.4 The Influence of NEF/WEF and CEWC on the formation of UNESCO.

During my research on NEF/WEF and CEWC I came across various references where both organisations have claimed some credit towards the establishment of the UNESCO.

It is important therefore to understand the evolution of UNESCO and the roles played by NEF/WEF and CEWC in its inception and development.

With regard to NEF the claim comes through its work with the International Bureau of Education (IBE) that will be discussed in more detail below. From its inception the IBE had many NEF supporters involved in its day to day running. It is quite likely, therefore that the IBE would have had some input into the discussions that were taking place around the formation of UNESCO. What is clear is that the IBE, as we see below, worked closely with UNESCO after its formation and eventually, in 1969, it became part of UNESCO.

In a similar way CEWC played a role in the formation of UNESCO by influencing the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education (CAME) through its work on the LIA via the Joint Commission (No 5) 'The Place of Education, Religion, Science and Learning in Post-War Reconstruction'. The final report of the Commission 'Education and the United Nations,' was widely circulated, particularly in the United States prior to its official release and was formally recognised by CAME.⁷⁰

UNESCO was

“...created in order to respond to the firm belief of nations, forged by two world wars in less than a generation, that political and economic agreements

⁶⁹ LSE Archives CEWC 316 Press release: the future of the Council for Education in World Citizenship. Prof. David Miles. CEWC Chair. 26th June 2008.

⁷⁰ Heater, D.(1984) 'Peace Through Education'. pp. 89-92

are not enough to build a lasting peace. Peace must be established on the basis of humanity's moral and intellectual solidarity.”⁷¹

UNESCO is the only United Nations section that works through the mediums of education, science and culture to promote peace and so it can be said that peace education is central to the mandates and workings of UNESCO.

I have already discussed in this chapter the formation of the League of Nations in 1919 tasked with its primary aim of preventing further major international conflicts. It set about doing this by fostering and strengthening the ties between countries particularly in commerce, industry and agriculture. Its central concerns were political and economic as reflected in the creation of the International Labour Organisation (ILO)⁷² and although there were calls for a similar International Education Organisation over the following years, nothing came about as those calling for it were considered “idealists and cranks”.⁷³ One such call was made by the International Alliance of Women who wanted to establish such a body under the remit of the League of Nations; however it would appear that governments in particular opposed this because they were fearful of external intervention in their educational system imposing schemes of education in which they would have little say.⁷⁴

However in 1922 the League approved the formation of a Committee to examine questions concerning intellectual and educational cooperation called the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation (ICIC). Although the word ‘education’ was not included in the final title it was an ever-present part of the Committee’s activities as it was virtually impossible to separate education from other work such as the equalising of higher education qualifications across national education systems.

⁷¹ <http://en.unesco.org/about-us/introducing-unesco>

⁷² The ILO was attached to the League of Nations under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles (1919). It was established by Part XIII of the Treaty and was to regulate general working conditions such as hours of work, rates of pay etc. It also included recognition of the principle of freedom of association; the organization of vocational and technical education and other similar measures.

⁷³ Boyd, W and Rawson, W: (1965) *The Story of The New Education*. Heinemann. London. p.152

⁷⁴ Rendel, M N. (1997): *Who's Human Rights?*. Trentham Books. Stoke on Trent. p.28

In January 1926 the International Institute for Intellectual Cooperation (IIIC), funded by the French government was opened in Paris and the ICIC became its governing body.

Elsewhere others were responding to a similar call and in 1925 a private, unofficial organisation was created by the Institut Rousseau that promoted international cooperation in education. Named the International Bureau of Education (IBE) its founders included Edouard Claparède, Pierre Bovet, Adolphe Ferrière and Béatrice Ensor all of whom, as we have seen were prominent New Educationalists and so it is hardly surprising that the IBE focussed on child-centred learning rather than curriculum content and teacher-driven education. The new organisation was extremely active, organising conferences, exhibitions, lectures and literature on topics such as intellectual cooperation, women's rights and education for peace.⁷⁵

In 1929 when funding and resources became scarcer, in order to ensure its survival and independence the IBE became an intergovernmental organisation (IGO), the first in the field of education. Under the leadership of Jean Piaget and others secure foundations were put in place and membership was aimed at governments and those international bodies concerned with the development of education world-wide. Initially only three states joined but by the late 1960s nearly a hundred states were actively involved in the organisation.⁷⁶

All three organisations continued to work during WW2, although in a somewhat limited fashion and were instrumental in providing ideas and proposals for the next stage in educational development.

In October 1942 the President of the Board of Education of England and Wales, R A Butler and the Chairman of the British Council, Sir Malcolm Robertson invited representatives of the allied governments in exile to a meeting to discuss the future of education once peace was established. This later became known as the Conference of

⁷⁵ Hofstetter, R and Schneuwly,,: *The International Bureau of Education (1925-1968): a platform for designing a 'chart of world aspirations for education'*. European Educational Research journal. Vol12, No.2 2013. p.216

⁷⁶ Ibid. pp. 216-217

Allied Ministers of Education (CAME). Representatives from France, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Holland, Norway, Poland and Yugoslavia all attended the initial meeting and were joined by Luxembourg at their fourth meeting in May 1943.⁷⁷ At this same meeting a committee was formed to study the report produced by CEWC for the London International Assembly, "The Place of Education, Science and Learning in Post-War Reconstruction". Section 2b of this report called for the

"...establishment of an International Organisation for Education to promote the advancement of education generally and, in particular of education for world citizenship so that education may provide a secure foundation for the post-war system."⁷⁸

By the end of 1943 as world interest in CAME continued to grow so the need for an international educational organisation became generally accepted. In April 1944 the 9th session was attended by delegates from USA and by now work was well advanced on proposals for an international education organisation.⁷⁹

As work progressed in this area so other wider issues were being explored and developed. In January 1942 United States President Roosevelt brought together representatives of allied nations in Washington D.C. Here they agreed their support for the Atlantic Charter originally proposed by the USA and British governments in 1941 by signing up to the "Declaration by United Nations".

In the autumn of 1944 representatives of the USA, the United Kingdom, China and the Soviet Union met in Dumbarton Oaks, USA, to draw up a set of proposals that were to form the basis of the United Nations Charter. The Charter was signed by representatives of 51 countries in June 1945 and the United Nations finally came into existence in October 1945 when the Charter was ratified by a majority of the 51 countries.

⁷⁷ Valderrama, F. (1995): A History of UNESCO. UNESCO Reference Books, Vendome. p.19

⁷⁸ Heater, D. Peace Through Education. p. 202

⁷⁹ Valderrama, F. (1995) A History of UNESCO p. 20

While this was going on, in January 1945 CAME began to consider the possibility of formal relations between the proposed United Nations Organisation (UN), the IBE and the IIIC that would include scientific research.

Following its formation, the UN asked the UK to call a conference to consider a French proposal to convene an international organisation for cultural cooperation. The conference took place in London in November 1945 and its purpose was 'the establishment of a 'United Nations Educational and Cultural Organization' (UNESCO).⁸⁰

Following pressure from a body of distinguished international scientists that included Joseph Needham, Head of the British Scientific Mission to China, and Julian Huxley, a British scientist, philosopher and educator the UK government proposed inserting 'Scientific' into the organisation's title and so the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) was born.

At the end of the war IIIC began reviewing its archives and these were handed over to UNESCO, providing a solid platform for its initial work.

In a similar manner the IBE had been following the formation and initial work of UNESCO with some interest and in 1947 a provisional agreement was drawn up between the two organisations and a small, six person commission was established to ensure that there would be clarity of purpose and successful collaboration. They agreed to set up an annual conference on public education, joint publications and the exchange of documents. This formed the basis for their work together until 1969 when following the death of its long-time Director and driving force, Jean Piaget, IBE became part of UNESCO although it retained considerable autonomy.⁸¹

UNESCO continues to endorse the child-centred education method advocated by NEF/WEF and as shown earlier in this chapter CEWC continued to play an active role in promoting the work of the UN and UNESCO right to the end of its effective life.

⁸⁰ Ibid. p.22

⁸¹ Hofstetter, R and Schneuwly, B: *The International Bureau of Education (1925-1968)*: pp.217 & 226

Virtually unknown now both NEF/WEF and CEWC played an important role in laying the foundations for the peace education that was to come in the UK and in the next chapter I will show how they influenced influential World studies projects of the 1970s and '80s.

In the next chapter I will show how peace education in English secondary schools continued to develop, building upon the work of NEF/WEF and CEWC by looking at the work of the Schools council for Curriculum and Examination and the development of World Studies.

Chapter 6: Peace Education in the Changing Curriculum: The work of the Schools Council and the introduction of World Studies.

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I examined the work and impact of two organisations, NEF/WEF and CEWC whose origins were rooted in the New Education movement that gathered pace around the turn of the 20th century. Both organisations were focussed on child-centred teaching methods and International Education.

In this chapter I will consider two more organisations/movements that continued to develop teaching methods that concentrated on the child rather than the teacher and also looked to widen the curriculum beyond the usual set subjects. The first of these will be the work of the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examination (SCEE) and then the impact of the World Studies programme instigated by the One World Trust (OWT) and carried forward by the influential World Studies 8 – 13 Project.

6.2 Setting the scene.

When the European phase of World War 2 ended in 1945 Britain entered a period of extended austerity. Food, petrol and other essential supplies were still rationed and in England in particular a massive rebuilding programme got underway and work began on refocusing industrial production away from war supplies towards producing the goods needed by a peaceful society.

At the same time the government embarked on a programme of social reform with the introduction of the underpinnings of the modern welfare state. As we have already seen in a previous chapter the formal education system, along with the creation of a national health service was one of the foundation stones.

Britain however, was not alone in suffering post-war deprivation; the whole of the European land mass had been affected to a greater or lesser extent, many countries depended on aid from the USA and the end of the war did not see the end of the

period of hostilities. The emergence of the Soviet bloc signified the start of a period of political unease and uncertainty that was to last well into the 1990s. The two major powers, USA and Soviet Union embarked on a headlong dash for nuclear supremacy and watching quietly but menacingly in the background was the growing military might of communist China.

Nowhere was the tension and division more noticeable than in Germany. At the end of the war Germany found itself split in half with its capital Berlin isolated inside the Soviet held sector and split into four sectors. In June 1948 the Soviets flexed their muscles for the first time by blockading Berlin and for the next 11 months the German capital survived through a massive Allied forces airlift. This was the opening of the new frontline of hostilities. In 1949 the country was formally separated into East and West Germany and a virtually impregnable barrier was built along the length of the border by Soviet forces, both sides amassing large military forces facing each other.

Tensions continued to rise and the arsenal of nuclear weapons was growing on both sides although the Western allies, particularly the USA felt that their superiority meant that they held the balance of power.

There was however a major change in US and NATO strategic thinking when, in 1957, the Soviet Bloc demonstrated its ability to strike at U.S. territory with ballistic missiles carrying large nuclear warheads.¹

Working at this during the period, 1962 – 64, the US Secretary of Defence Robert McNamara developed a policy known as ‘assured destruction’ that basically required the US to have a ‘second strike’ capability large enough to ‘assure’ the destruction of the Soviet Bloc if they made a pre-emptive ‘first strike’. Having such ability would make clear to the Soviets that they should not make such an attack because the United States could “assure” their destruction even after being attacked. To many critics the

¹ Tertrais, B.(2004): Destruction Assurée: The Origins and Development of French nuclear Strategy in Sokolski, H.D. (ed.):Getting MAD: Nuclear Assured Destruction, Its Origins and Practice. Accessed at <http://strategicstudiesinstitute.army.mil/pubs/display.cfm?pubID=585> on 14 October 2011. p.15

policy McNamara offered was based around a fundamental contradiction that the safest way to reduce the threat of a nuclear holocaust was to increase the number of warheads and missiles rather than reduce them. It is hardly surprising that the policy was renamed as 'mutually assured destruction' using the acronym MAD to signal to the world that McNamara's policy was 'mad'.²

With both sides eventually adopting it, it was not surprising therefore that people in Western Europe began to question the sanity of their leaders and their policies.

In Britain this manifested itself with a series of peace conferences and also the founding of organisations such as the Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (CND) (1958), joining others already working in the field (such as Oxfam – 1942, and the Peace Pledge Union – 1936) all of which would have an impact on the teaching of peace education in British schools.

In some respects however the various conferences attracted attention for the wrong reasons. For example both the Second World Peace Conference organised by the World Peace Council, held in Sheffield and the 1953 International Tension and Education Conference organised by International Teachers for Peace were affected by potential attendees being subject to government banning orders. Typically the Home Secretary at the time, Sir D. Maxwell Fyfe said, in answer to a question in the House:

"I have made it plain to the House more than once that I am not prepared to admit foreigners to attend meetings organised by bodies which, under the guise of some harmless name intended to deceive the public as to their aims, are instruments of Communist propaganda. I am satisfied that "Teachers for Peace" is in this category, however unconscious of it some of its members may be, and accordingly foreigners known to be coming to attend the conference which it organised on 29th and 30th December were excluded from the United Kingdom."³

² Carlisle, Rodney P. "mutually assured destruction (MAD)." Encyclopedia of the Atomic Age. New York: Facts On File, Inc., 2001. Modern World History Online. Facts On File, Inc. <http://www.fofweb.com/activelink2.asp?>

³http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/written_answers/1954/jan/21/teachers-for-peace-conference accessed 29th November 2011

Some organisations however were much more successful in both establishing themselves and mobilising large numbers of the population in peaceful public protest, CND in particular doing well at raising awareness of their cause.

Following the Easter march to the Atomic Weapons Research Establishment in 1958 organised by the Emergency Committee for Direct Action, CND organised annual marches in the reverse direction, each one culminating in a major rally in Trafalgar Square, London. The 1959 rally attracted around 20,000 people and estimates put the 1960 attendance at over 100,000⁴. CND's main platform was worldwide nuclear disarmament and as the public perception of the effects of nuclear conflict grew so did CND's membership, by 1960 there were over 450 Regional and local groups in existence⁵ as well as specialist groups such as Christian Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (1959), Voice of Women (1961).

Gradually though, the fear of nuclear war began to diminish. The successful conclusion of the 1962 Cuban Missile crisis together with the signing of a limited nuclear test ban treaty meant mass protests were focussing more and more on the USA's war in Vietnam and the anti-nuclear war movement was being replaced by more broadly focussed anti-war/peace campaign. The policy of MAD referred to earlier began to be accepted not as a threat but in a somewhat perverse way as deterrent to nuclear war.

This inter-war period (1919-39), had also seen the founding of other long-lasting peace and non-violence organisations such as War Resisters International (1921) and the Fellowship for Reconciliation (1914), would have a role in promoting various aspects of peace education in later years.

However, whilst all of these organisations had an impact on raising the profile of peace education in schools by focussing on relatively narrow issues such as nuclear war, its aftermath and possible alternatives, there appears to be little or no evidence that they were actively promoting wider peace education issues in schools.

⁴ Carter, A. (1992): Peace Movements. Longman. London. p48

⁵ Ibid.

There were signs however that some change was beginning to take place. Quietly, in 1959 the Richardson Institute for Peace Studies was established at Lancaster University. Named after the Quaker scientist, Lewis Fry Richardson, the centre was the first dedicated to peace research in the UK and in schools events were also happening that would have a major effect on the role of peace education in schools in the 1970 – 80s.

6.3 Early Peace Education in the formal school environment – The Schools Council for Curriculum and Examination (SCCE)

In 1964, following the recommendations of a working party chaired by Sir John Lockwood, the Minister for Education, Sir Edward Boyle, established SCCE. The Council replaced two existing bodies, the long established Secondary Schools Examination council, (1917) and the more recent Curriculum Study Group (1962) that was part of the Department for Education and Science.

Surviving twenty years of challenge from all sides, SCCE instigated over 120 separate projects in all of the major areas of the curriculum. It covered topics ranging from nursery education through health education, computing, multiracial and multicultural education to developing skills for adult life. Other projects included several covering special needs education and the education of children in traveller communities

The SCCE was not just concerned with developing the curriculum content but also in the methods used in transferring knowledge from the teachers to their students. It particularly focussed on using progressive, child-centred teaching methods and developed a series of pioneering projects in partnership with other educational establishments that promoted the use of methods of debate, discussion and group work within the classroom. Thus following the philosophy of the New Educationalists we saw in the previous chapter.

Amongst these were projects that had relevance to the development of peace education in schools both because of their content and the innovative manner in which their teaching materials were presented. These included: two *Moral Education* projects covering the 8 -13 and 13 – 16 age ranges, *Integrated Studies*, *The Humanities Curriculum* project and two projects that controversially confronted the changing nature of British society – ‘*Studies in the Multi-ethnic Curriculum*’ and ‘*Education for a Multi-Racial Society*’. A programme on *Political Education* that focussed on raising political awareness ran but although it brought the subject into the open it produced little in the way of measureable output.

Many of the projects ran concurrently as can be seen in the table below:

Projects	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
Moral Education 13-16															
Integrated Studies															
Humanities Curriculum Project															
Moral Education 8-13															
Education for a Multiracial Society															
A Programme for Political Education															
Studies in the Multi-ethnic Curriculum															

SCCE Projects and their timelines

Figure 4. SCCE Project timeline

The ‘*Moral Education 13 – 16 Project*’ (called Lifeline) was conceived at a meeting in Oxford University on 21st December 1966, chaired by Harold Loukes, Reader in Religious Education.⁶ The proposed aim of the project was to ‘help pupils to think in moral terms’.

⁶ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/038 Pt.1 Meeting notes

This was an extension on work already in progress at Oxford funded by the Farmington Trust for Research in Moral Education and the project was given final approval on 11th April 1967. Funding of £12,515 was allocated and the project was to run from September 1967 to July 1969 with Peter McPhail appointed as Director.⁷

The project was commissioned as part of the SCCE's programme for the raising of the school leaving age to 16. Its aim was to help young people in secondary schools adopt a considerate style of life and patterns of behaviour which take others' needs, interests and feelings into account as well as their own, one of the main foundations of peace education. The team recognised that the word 'moral' was often seen as negative, having a restricted and often exclusively sexual connotation and the concept of 'explicit moral education' could be seen as an attempt to impose middle-class values on working class children.⁸

There was no attempt in the published materials to provide pupils with answers to moral questions, to teach morality or to test pupils, nor was the programme material intended as either a threat or alternative to a religious education syllabus.

"We believe that, whereas good religious education has moral effects and good moral education may stimulate interest in religion, moral education and religious education are not identical; are not, or ought not to be, in any sense in competition."⁹

The project team saw moral education as a field in its own right with its own concepts, skills and techniques and their main concern was to encourage a considerate lifestyle amongst children irrespective of their religion. Moral and religious education was seen to have differing aims but experience in schools had suggested that they could work side-by-side. Their research showed in over 40% of cases the project material was being used in religious education classes.¹⁰

⁷ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/038 Pt 1 File note

⁸ McPhail, P., Ungood-Thomas, J.R., Chapman, H. (1972): *Moral Education in the Secondary School*. Longman Group Ltd. Harlow .p.16

⁹Ibid .p.20

¹⁰ Ibid. p.20

Trial 'sensitivity' material was sent out to 45 schools in January 1968 that aimed to increase children's awareness of the feelings of others. As part of the development process teachers were asked to keep a notebook of criticisms including both their own and those of their pupils.¹¹

In October 1968 the project was extended for a further two years' work and a series of publications in the 'Lifeline' series were in progress:¹²

- '*In Our School*' was a handbook on the practice of democracy in schools. It considered in detail the appropriate methods of encouraging involvement by pupils in the organisation of school life.
- '*What Would You Have Done*' (J. R. Ungood-Thomas), was a series of six booklets considering moral and social problems in a worldwide context. Each booklet took a true situation as a basis for further work in discussions. The booklets' titles were *Birthday, South Africa; Solitary Confinement, Lincolnshire 1917; Arrest, Amsterdam 1944; Street Scene, Los Angeles 1965; Hard-luck Story, South Vietnam 1966; Gale in Hospital, London 1969*. There were slide folios accompanying each booklet, each containing 12 slides of maps, documents, photographs, paintings etc.
- '*Proving the Rule*' (Hilary Chapman), was a series of five illustrated booklets containing situations involving a young man, Paul, and his relationships with his family, friends and society. Individual titles were '*Rules and individuals*', '*What you expect?*'; '*Who do you think I am?*'; '*In whose interests?*'; '*Why should I?*'
- '*In Other People's Shoes*' (Peter McPhail), consisted of three sets of cards presenting situations as starting points for pupils' discussion (*Sensitivity*) and encouraging pupils to consider consequences (*Consequences*), taking others' points of view and circumstances into account (*Points of View*).

¹¹ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/038 Pt. 1 File note

¹² Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/038 Pt. 2a Minutes

Common themes running throughout *Lifeline* were health education, sex education, race relations, community service and teacher education.

All of these topics and themes are still relevant to and part of modern peace education.

With regard to this last item the project team took the view that teachers always have some influence or impact on their pupils so it would be hardly surprising then, that they saw this extending into their moral education. They felt that this influence was so strong that it would not be sensible to expect the teacher to be impartial or neutral.

(This provides an interesting contrast to the approach adopted by the Humanities Curriculum Project below where the project team placed emphasis on teachers being 'neutral' when dealing with controversial issues.)

They did however make the case for the teacher occasionally taking a 'neutral' stance when acting as the chair of a debate or research group and cautioned against teachers inhibiting discovery by saying too much, too soon, too often.¹³

The *Lifeline* series of booklets and cards were all published in one fell swoop in October 1972¹⁴ along with an overview of the project '*Moral Education in Secondary Schools*' which gave an account of the research concerning the theory and practice of moral education, the conclusions drawn, and a set of proposals on how the finding could be practically applied.¹⁵

The project was deemed to be such a success that a second, extension project covering the age range 8 – 13 years was commissioned with a grant of £124,386. The '*Moral Education 8 – 13 Project (Startline)*' began in 1972 initially also under the leadership of Peter McPhail until he handed over to David Ingram in 1976 who saw the project through to its completion in 1978. Based on the extensive research carried out during

¹³ McPhail et al. pp 90 - 92

¹⁴ Longman Group Ltd, Harlow.

¹⁵ McPhail, P., Ungood-Thomas, J.R., Chapman, H. (1972): Moral Education in the Secondary School. Longman Group Ltd. Harlow.

the previous project the material produced reflected the team's conviction the children of the age range 8 – 13 years learn more effectively about relationships and matters of right and wrong by putting themselves into the position of other people.

The team produced two sets of materials called '*Choosing*' and '*How it Happens*'. '*Choosing*' consisted of a series of six short collections of children's own personal experiences which help pupils identify the occasions when they could alter the pattern of events by their own initiative and choose thoughtfully from alternative courses of action. The booklets' titles were: '*What shall I do?*'; '*Growing up.*'; '*Out and about.*'; '*Getting it right.*'; '*Working things out*' and '*Friendship*' and they were accompanied by two sets of photo plays consisting of 22 posters with teacher's notes and 144 black-and-white cards plus teacher's notes.

The '*Integrated Studies Project*'¹⁶ was established in 1968 under the directorship of David Bolam and was based at the Institute of Education, University of Keele. It was built around the supposition that the school curriculum should include work that examined the nature of social life and human relationships, and ran until 1972. The aim was to insert this work into subjects across the curriculum rather than to create a separate humanities course.¹⁷

Six books were produced:

- '*The Exploration of Man*' would introduce the pupils to tools of enquiry that would help them explore the world around them and their place in it.
- '*Communication with Others*' used the expressive arts; art, dance, music, film etc. to look at the differing ways we communicate with each other.
- '*Living Together*' used a series of case studies to examine and understand how conventions such as work, family, law and order, beliefs and education vary in different cultures

¹⁶ National Archives EJ 12/5 Project Outlines - '*Integrated Studies Project*'

¹⁷ Shipman, M.D.: *Social Science Integrated Studies*. In *The Social Science Teacher 1972: Collected Conference Papers*. The Association for the Teaching of Social Science. Eds. Noble, P., Shelton, I., Townley, C.

- *'Development in West Africa'* used geography as a base to focus on the problems of the Third world and built upon the work in Living Together.
- *'Groups in Society'* concentrated on minority groups in society to illustrate the different values and life styles in society. They included not only cultural groups such as Gypsies but also addicts and drop-outs.
- *'Man Made Man'* looked at the manner in which societies represent their nature and lives.

Once again we can see how the content of the booklets and the teaching methods used directly relate to current peace education teaching and practice.

Overreaching all of these projects and others such as Political Education, Environmental Studies, General Studies and Religious Education was the Humanities Curriculum Project. Established in January 1967 running through to 1981, it was jointly funded by SCCE and the Nuffield Foundation.

It was announced in June 1967 in an open letter to all chief education officers and other education administrators. In the letter the project objectives were stated as:

- “i) to give the adolescent pupil a consciousness of his place in society, of what he contributes to it, and what he can probably seek from it.
- ii) To give him experience in making rational judgements and decisions in the fields of both values and facts.

In broad terms the objectives will be to provide for the majority of pupils, something of the quality and range of liberal education hitherto reserved for the minority of more academically-minded pupils, and to do this in terms which are intellectually sound while at the same time interesting and relevant to the pupils' needs.”¹⁸

The project was directed by Lawrence Stenhouse and based at the Philippa Fawcett College in London but it soon became apparent that the College would not be able to support the project after 1970 and work began on finding a suitable, long-term home that would be capable of continuing the project once the council grant ran out. As a

¹⁸ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/026 Pt.1 Letter from J.C. Owen. 30th June 1967

result, in September 1969 the decision was made to move the project to the University of East Anglia where a Centre for Research in Teaching the Humanities and Social Sciences would be created with Lawrence Stenhouse as its Director.

The aim of the project was intended to cover "aspects of human experience where the traditional boundaries of subjects such as English, history and religious education overlap".¹⁹

Teaching information would consist of a teacher's handbook, a student's book, photographs, audiotapes, records and films. The project leaders acknowledged that the material supplied was inevitably selective but the intention was that as the school developed the project so pupils and teachers would make their own contribution to the core material.

The intention was to widen the understanding of children aged 14 to 16 years of a series of issues where it was not possible for them to resolve their differences by evidence or experiment but would need to use discussion that would require an element of value judgement. The project consisted of seven of these controversial topics, War and Society, Education, Family, Relations Between the Sexes, People and Work, Poverty, and Law and Order. As an example of the structure of the topics the Project detailed the questions posed to the pupils in the War and Society pack.

These were:

- How does the experience of a war affect the attitudes of the combatants?
- How does war affect social relationships and attitudes?
- What functions do propaganda and psychological warfare have in wartime?
- What impact does the nature of technology have on war?
- What do individuals see as their responsibility in war?
- How do wars happen and how, if desirable, can they be resolved?
- Can you have a 'just war'? ²⁰

¹⁹ Stenhouse, L. The Humanities Curriculum Project: The Rationale. Theory into Practice 1971 vol:10 iss:3 pp:154 -162

²⁰ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/026 Pt.1 Project Information Pack

The aim was for pupils to:

- Gain the self-assurance to express their own opinions and so improve their self-esteem,
- improve their skills in critical thinking,
- learning to recognise that others have valid different viewpoint and opinions,
- develop the skills of cooperating with others.

Even today this would be challenging to both pupils and teachers and even more so when it is seen that the project was aimed at pupils of “the 14 to 16 year old of average or below average ability who do not have serious reading difficulties.”²¹

It is not surprising that, with such a subject list, the project attracted much interest from the right wing press. For example a Daily Telegraph article criticised the pack suggesting that there was more than just potential for bias, particularly in the section ‘War and Society’, when it said “the humanities project, in capable hands, certainly offers a splendid chance of indoctrination.”²²

The first five sections were all published in 1970 as follows Project introduction, War and Society and Education in May of that year, The Family in September and Relationship between the Sexes in November.²³

As we have seen the project recommended using discussion as a primary teaching method rather than the normal form of instruction and the role of the teacher was seen to be that of “a neutral chairman” based on what was described as ‘procedural neutrality’, effectively acting as a facilitator. The intention was that pupils would take

²¹ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/026 Pt.1 Project Information Pack

²² Institute of Education Archives, University of London SC\318\352\026 Pt.3. The Daily Telegraph, 3 July 1969, “Way of the World”.

²³ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/026 Pt.2 File document.

responsibility for their own learning and the process would aim to avoid any form of teacher bias affecting the conclusions of pupils.²⁴

This was the third option considered by the project; the two other were firstly that a school would set down a common policy to be followed by all of their teachers. It was felt that this would be impractical, achieving consensus would be impossible and imposing a majority decision would mean that teachers with opposing views to those adopted would be placed in the position of being seen to be hypocritical. The second option was that teachers could be free to express their own point of view; the issue here was that the unavoidable classroom authority of the teacher would almost certainly mean that their view would automatically be accorded undue importance by the pupils.

The adopted strategy was not value-free, the project argued strongly to the contrary:

“...education is committed to a preference for rationality rather than irrationality, imaginativeness rather than unimaginativeness, sensitivity rather than insensitivity. It must stand for respect for persons and readiness to listen to the views of others.”²⁵

It was intended that there would be a pack titled ‘Race’ but in the end, even after extensive revision, this was shelved by the Council in 1972 due to concerns about the content being influenced by extremist organisations both from the left and right wing of the political divide.²⁶ This decision was somewhat surprising and disappointing to the project team. Much of the discussion centred on the ability of the teacher to play the role of a ‘neutral chairman’ in such an emotive subject but Stenhouse in particular, felt that their research showed that this would not be a problem. (They had foreseen the potential problems and so held a small feasibility study in six schools with a mini-pack of material and the response had been quite positive.) Ruddock later commented:

²⁴ Rudduck, J. (1976): Dissemination of innovation: the Humanities Curriculum Project. Schools Council Working Paper No.56. Evans Brothers Ltd. London

²⁵ Rudduck, J. (1970): The Humanities Project: An Introduction. The Schools Council. Heinemann Educational Books. London. p.9

²⁶ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC/318/352/026, Pt.3 Programme committee Minutes 18th Jan 1972

"The most bitter confrontation, for us, came when one of the Council's committees vetoed the publication of the project's materials on race relations, negligently disregarding, so it seemed to us the research evidence of our own pilot study, and other studies, which suggested that an approach through open discussion might be an effective means of deepening the understanding of multicultural issues and thereby of increasing tolerance."²⁷

The cancellation produced much comment in the press and for a time there were fears that it would blight the rest of the project although the project team came to realise that "the committee members were to some extent victims of an adverse publicity campaign deliberately mounted in the popular press to ensure that the project lost public sympathy."²⁸

However SCCE did not let the matter rest there. In a direct response to the attacks and criticism an independent project was launched that began work in April 1973. They accepted a proposal from the National Foundation for Educational Research for research and development into *Education for a Multiracial Society*. The project ran until December 1976 and involved around 2000 students aged 15-16 in a total of 39 English schools. The project evaluated three different strategies

- A. Using the original 'Race' pack materials developed by the Humanities Project where the classes were managed by a teacher (or chairperson) that would inform and teach in the usual manner.
- B. Using the 'Race' materials but using the 'neutral' chairperson concept developed by the Humanities Project.
- C. Using the concept of psychodrama, developed by J. L. Moreno, that involved the use of unscripted role play and improvised drama. Students were encouraged to use events from their own experiences for the drama.

Roughly 500 students were involved in each strategy, the rest acted as controls and 'before' and 'after' evaluations were conducted that provided "moderately encouraging" results in that all three methods demonstrated that there could be long-

²⁷ Rudduck, J. (1985): *From Projects to Programmes – The View at the Sharp End* in Plaskow, M. (ed.): *Life and Death of the Schools Council*. Falmer Press. Lewes.p.148

²⁸ Ibid. p.149

lasting positive changes in attitude but that strategy 'A' brought about the most long-lasting effect.²⁹

Following this, in 1978 the SCCE set up a survey project entitled *Studies in the Multi-ethnic Curriculum* that was the most comprehensive survey of its time. Professor Alan Little and Dr. Richard Wiley of Goldsmiths' College, London University sent detailed questionnaires to all LEAs in England and Wales, as well as to head teachers and heads of department in a stratified sample of secondary schools. It came to the conclusion that whilst there was a lot being said about the education of children in ethnic-minorities little was actually being done.³⁰ They reached the opinion that it was not enough to introduce subjects such as 'Black Studies' but that education for ethnic-minorities needed to involve the whole curriculum and the whole school. Two areas that they saw a worthy of attention were

- the need to encourage more members of minority ethnic groups to enter teaching; a point raised by many LEAs and schools,³¹
- better liaison between home and schools in multi-racial areas as many schools reported that minority ethnic group parents were less active than white British parents in parental involvement such as parent-teacher associations.³²

The results of the survey were submitted as part of SCCE's evidence to the Swann Inquiry together with the findings of SCCE Working Party on Multicultural Education set up in February 1979 that had as one of its terms of reference the need to "identify curriculum areas where work needs to be promoted and to recommend how this might be done." Under the Chairmanship of Hugh Boulter, Senior Education Officer, Northamptonshire, (the committee also included Robert Aitken, Chief Education Officer for Coventry City Council) the working party made a series of recommendations concluding with the statement

²⁹ Bagley, C.: *Teaching About Race Relations: field notes*. In Journal of Education Vol. XVII No.2 (Spring 1982). pp 169- 172

³⁰ The National Archives. SCC/54/180. School Council News No.36. Summer Term 1981 p.12

³¹ Little A. and Willey, R. (1981): Multi-ethnic education: the way forward. A report from the Schools Council project, *Studies in the Multi-ethnic Curriculum*. Schools Council pamphlet No.18. Schools Council for Curriculum and Education. London. p.24

³² Ibid. p.23

“In general the Working Party looks to a time when all schools reflect the legal requirements that race and sex equally must not be discriminated against. Both the hidden and overt curriculum should express these dimensions which, because they are statutorily enshrined, are of a more fundamental order than any other demand on the curriculum”³³

All in all it can be seen that whilst the SCCE had been somewhat bloodied by the attacks of the proposed ‘Race’ pack it was not bowed and its work on multi-ethnic and multicultural education set the standards for others to follow.

There can be little doubt that the Humanities Project was enthusiastically received by the teaching profession and by 1972 was in use in over 800 British schools³⁴. Later figures from the publishers showed that by April 1973 ‘War and Society’ for example had sold nearly 600 packs, and the other sections sold between 300 and 500 packs each³⁵, each pack containing sufficient material for two teachers and 20 students and costing in the region of £30 each.

There can also be little doubt that the project was highly influential in the area of curriculum reform in the British educational structure.

"Its real importance lay in the evidence it amassed, from the greatly extended network teacher-participant-research-developers, that the climate of authority in the classrooms and in schools is a critical variable in children's learning.... It directly questioned the effectiveness of the traditional didactic authority role of the teacher and demonstrated that teacher attitudes were a critical element in all curriculum development work."³⁶

Caston goes on to say that similar messages were beginning to come through from the other projects. It was becoming clear that results from most of the development work was that teacher authority was being threatened by evidence that learning demanded active, autonomous, and even at times, rebellious participation by pupils.³⁷

³³ The National Archives. SCC/54/180. *Education for a Multiracial Society: Curriculum and Context* 5-13.

³⁴ Parkinson, J.P. and MacDonald B.(1972): Teaching Race Neutrally. Race and Class Vol. XIII, Iss. 3. pp.299-313

³⁵ Institute of Education Archives, University of London, SC\318\352\026 Pt.3 Sales as at April 1973

³⁶ Caston, G., (1985): *Epilogue* in Bell, R., Prescott, W.(eds.) *The Schools Council: A Second Look*. Ward Lock Educational. p.164

³⁷ *Ibid.* p.164

All of these Projects and particularly the Humanities Curriculum Project also moved away from the use of traditional learning materials – textbooks. They based their content on the use of more diverse materials, newspapers, film, audio tapes etc. that later peace education projects would expand upon.

I am sure that at the time none of the members of the SCCE or the various project members would look upon their work as being related to peace education in any way. However there can be little doubt that their use of child-centred teaching methods, innovative teaching material and the highly effective dissemination of their research produced a new enthusiasm in the teaching profession and made children much more aware of the world around them and their future role in it.

The content of all of the projects detailed above took children and their teachers into what was up to then, largely uncharted waters. Teachers were challenged not just by the content of the material but also by having placed the child in the centre of the overall arena. It took a great deal of courage for them to stand back and allow their pupils dictate the course of the lesson and it allowed the children to explore and develop their own personalities and knowledge in a manner that had only previously been seen in a small number of specialist, private schools.

More and more teachers were accepting new ideas and concepts of teaching and this would pave the way for the peace education projects that were to follow and in particular the developing interest in ‘World Studies’.

6.4 The One World Trust (OWT), World Studies and the World Studies 8-13 Project

Henry Charles Usborne was elected to Parliament as a Labour MP for Acocks Green in July 1945. An engineer and committed socialist, he was convinced that the primary aim of his party and generation was to lift the working classes out of the poverty they were enmeshed in. Usborne was also a committed international federalist; he had been

vice-president of the British Federal Union since 1939 believing that long-lasting world peace could only be achieved through the creation of a world government.

In his maiden speech to the House of Commons, made in a debate on Foreign Affairs on 22nd May 1945 he said:

“I believe that there is only one hope of permanent peace, and that it lies in world government. Until we have world government, as distinct from world leagues or confederations, we cannot guarantee world peace...I would like to say one or two words about this problem of peace. I do not believe that peace can be kept by force. I believe that peace can be kept only by maintaining order under law. If you want law you must have a legislature to make it. Without law you cannot have justice, and without justice no peace is worthwhile.”³⁸

In 1947, after two years of preparation he established the All Party Parliamentary Group for World Government (APPGWG), one of the first all-party groups. Just 16 MPs formed the original group and they then launched the Crusade for World Government. Supporters of the movement included such various personages as Lord Beaverbrook, Lord Beveridge, Bertrand Russell, Yehudi Menuhin and, somewhat later, Shirley Williams.

When they first came together the founders shared concerns about the rise of nuclear armaments, the need to rebuild societies, and a still fragile framework of international law and institutions after World War II. They looked more and more towards education as being one possible long-term remedy to resolving these issues and in 1951 they founded the One World Trust (OWT), a charity, with the objectives of:

“(a) The promotion of research and enquiry into social science and cognate educational subjects and the study of facts, principles and methods of planning and organising on a world basis to the greatest advantage of the human species with due regard to their respective ethnological, geographical, nutritional, economic and other differential needs.

(b) The promotion of education and dissemination of knowledge so acquired.”³⁹

Throughout the 1960s the Trust organised a series of projects and publications.

³⁸ <http://www.theyworkforyou.com/debates/?id=1945-11-22a.601.2&s=speaker%3A21867#g678.1>

³⁹ Original trust Deed at http://www.oneworldtrust.org/publications/cat_view/78-organisational-documents/96-strategy-accounts-and-statutes

In 1966 they provided support for Dr James L Henderson to found a new magazine 'World Studies Education Services Bulletin'. As we saw in the previous chapter Henderson was at the time one of the driving forces in the World Education Fellowship where he was its Honorary International Secretary and Chairman. Richardson⁴⁰ credits Henderson, then Senior Lecturer in History and International Affairs at the Institute of Education, London University, as being the originator of the term 'World Studies'. Henderson had written about the subject in his edited book 'World Questions: a study guide'⁴¹ published in 1963 and had also included a chapter headed 'World Studies' in his 1968 book 'Education for World Understanding'. In the Introduction to this book he sets out his philosophy when he says:

"Because the survival of the human species depends upon the rapid establishment of some degree of world order, the educational foundations for it must be laid now...such a blueprint for education for world understanding must be valid in any quarter of the globe, however greatly its realisation may have to vary according to the local exigencies of political, economic and cultural pressures."⁴²

In 1967 OWT funded the publication of a detailed survey examining History syllabuses worldwide⁴³ and in 1969 acting upon advice from Lord Attlee they established an Education Advisory Committee (EAC). Initially under the joint chairmanship of Mr. Tony Durrant MP and James Henderson the aim was to encourage a greater sense of world community through education.

The EAC grew in size and by late 1970 had over 70 members including members of Parliament, representatives from universities, schools, colleges, teachers' associations, education authorities, and several organisations concerned with international co-operation and understanding. By this time Mrs Shirley Williams MP and Professor J. A. Lauwerys were joint chairs.

⁴⁰ Interview Harlock/Robin Richardson. 27.10 2011

⁴¹ Henderson, J.L. ed. (1963): World questions: a study guide. Methuen. London.

⁴² Henderson, J.L. (1968): Education for World Understanding. Pergamon Press London. p.1

⁴³ Lyall, A.ed. (1967): History syllabuses and a world perspective. A comparative survey of examination syllabuses in Britain and overseas. Parliamentary Group for World Government. Educational Advisory Committee. Longman London

In 1971 the EAC formulated a proposal to set up a World Studies Project that was to:

“...contribute to certain curriculum strategies in schools throughout the world, with a view to encouraging insight into the problems of world order, and a sense of loyalty to the human race as a whole in all its diversity.”⁴⁴

A funding application for £60,000 was made to the Leverhulme Trust that was to include the creation of an audio-visual centre. In October 1969 Lord Murray of Newhaven, Director of the Leverhulme Trust wrote to Shirley Williams rejecting the application. Murray’s remarks included comments that the application as it stood was too big to be considered by the Trust but there were elements that could form a more successful submission.⁴⁵ He suggested that they should meet informally to discuss the merits and content of a revised application, the result of which, following a second application, was a grant of £24,000 over three years.⁴⁶

There can be little doubt that Williams’ individual efforts were the main reason the grant was offered, something that was acknowledged by Patrick Armstrong, Honorary Clerk to APPGWG who wrote to Williams offering the EAC’s congratulations...“Especially to you, without whose participation the (*Leverhulme*) trustees would not have given anything. The committee is greatly in your debt.”⁴⁷

Richardson also acknowledged that she was “a very persuasive young person”.⁴⁸

The EAC appointed a guiding committee to oversee the project including: Mrs Shirley Williams (Chairman) (sic); James Henderson, (Vice-Chairman) (sic); and Dame Margaret Miles, Headmistress, Mayfield Comprehensive School, Putney, London.⁴⁹

The intention was that the project would focus on certain particular perspectives and concepts with regard to world order, and would look to frame precise educational

⁴⁴ Parliamentary Archives, PWG 15/4 . Pamphlet World Studies Project

⁴⁵ Parliamentary Archives, PWG 15/5. Letter Murray to Williams 19 October 1971

⁴⁶ Parliamentary Archives, PWG 15/5 letter Murray to Williams 30th March 1972

⁴⁷ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/5 Letter Armstrong to Williams 4th April 1972

⁴⁸ Interview Harlock/Robin Richardson. 27.10 2011

⁴⁹ Dame Margaret Miles was also a long-time active supporter and member of CEWC serving as Chair of its management committee and also as Vice-President in the 1970s. See Heater, D. (1984) for various references.

objectives in relation to them. To do this specific topics for study would be chosen from within general areas such as: the diversity of human behaviour and culture; decision-making and co-operation on a world scale; the sources and management of conflict between states; the relationship between man and his physical environment.

Aimed mainly at the secondary school age group the project materials would aspire to stimulate not just the mind but also student's imagination and feelings. To do this they would use a variety of expressive forms, including literature, pictures, posters, film, songs, discussion and research exercises, games, and simulations (role play). This was to bear a very similar profile to that used on the SCCE Humanities Project discussed earlier in this chapter.

Henderson had stated that "a function of the new project ...was the aim to produce courses capable of being used in other countries as well as here"⁵⁰ so it was proposed that the materials should be capable of being used in a variety of organisational settings and subject disciplines. As they would be available to educators in other countries it was also important that they could be adapted for use with a variety of teaching styles and in different cultural settings.

In order to promote the project and World Studies in general a number of conferences and working parties were to be organised, including internationally so as to study theoretical and practical questions relating to World Studies in schools.⁵¹ The project was formally launched with a press release on 1st June 1972 and work began immediately on recruiting a Project Director. There were several applications and after two rounds of interviews the position was offered to and accepted by Robin Richardson who started work on 1st January 1973.

Richardson had graduated in Modern Languages from Cambridge in 1960, taught at Sir Roger Manwood's School, Sandwich (1960-62) and then Clifton College, Bristol (1962-69) where he became Head of General Studies. From 1969-72 he was Director of the

⁵⁰ Parliamentary archives PWG 15/4 Guiding Group minutes 17th May 1972

⁵¹ Parliamentary Archive PWG 15/4 Press release and other notes 1st June 1972

Bloxham Research Project working under the chairmanship of Harold Loukes who, as we saw earlier in this chapter, was also Chairman of the SCCE 13-16 Moral Education Project that ran from 1967-72.

The Bloxham Project was concerned with moral and religious education in schools, particularly those that had close, historical links with the churches. It examined the relationship between curriculum organisation on the one hand and the values and attributes of students, moral, social, political and religious, on the other. As well as producing a series of four booklets, 'The Gods', 'Free for All', 'With Love and War' and 'Heart and Mind' under the general heading 'Frontiers of Enquiry'⁵² they ran a series of intensive, two day, teacher training courses using simulation, role play and structures discussion exercise.

Richardson spent the first few months in research and then produced a series of works the first of which was a preliminary discussion paper⁵³ where he created an outline of the content, teaching methods and presentation of teaching materials of the project. He envisaged that World Studies units would have five main aspects as shown in the diagram below:

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Figure 5. World Studies: a fivefold approach

⁵² These were all co-authored by Richardson and John Chapman, a researcher at the Project.

⁵³ Richardson's private papers RR/12: *'to explain the other to myself: a preliminary discussion paper on World Studies in schools. Summer 1973 (1st June 1973).* (From here forward I shall refer to Richardson's private papers by their folder reference i.e. RR/12 etc.)

And that the units could (*Richardson's emphasis*) be taught as single modules or as a series of modules. They could be taught either from a single text book or from a collection of material, a teacher could include only one of the five aspects or more. Around 500 copies of 'to explain the other....' were circulated via the project's mailing list.

In order to provide the best possible solution he proposed firstly that a pool of teaching material be compiled, including films, slides, files of evidence, and literature such as short stories, poetry and novels. The next stage would be for the material to be 'tested' in the classroom and then for there to be some "serious evaluation" using both 'hard' and 'soft' methods, the evaluation to be carried out by people such as teachers training for higher degrees in education or the social sciences.

Around 500 copies of the discussion paper were distributed and those interested were invited to attend two week-end consultations to be held in York and Brighton during November 1973.⁵⁴

Richardson then presented a second discussion paper, 'An Approach to the World' where he suggested that it might be possible to arrange parallel trials in Australia and India and either /or a Scandinavian country or the Netherlands. Around 20-30 schools would be involved and others kept informed of progress. The premise was that the way to work was with what schools were already doing rather than to try and impose/insert a syllabus from outside.⁵⁵

In September 1973 he wrote a short article for 'New Era' called 'The Sea is all about Us' that also contained some experimental teaching material 'Ocean Space'. The aim was to experiment with a selection of active teaching methods, particularly films, with

⁵⁴ Parliamentary Archives PWG/15/1 Interim Report to the Leverhulme Trust April 1974

⁵⁵ RR/1: Minutes of 5th Meeting of the Guiding group 11th June 1973

regard to international decision making, maritime law and the use/misuse of the seas and oceans.⁵⁶

By November 1973 there were two separate approaches in progress. The first was the two teacher consultations 'Teaching for One World', that were to take place in York and Brighton where around 100 invitations to attend had been accepted. The second was the preparation of a variety of teaching materials for eventual publication in a series of 4 – 6 books or packs with an envisaged publication date of summer 1975.

The primary function of the consultation weekends was to examine a series of issues that culminated in asking how education could "avoid leaving many pupils bewildered and/or distressed by the sheer complexity and size of the issues with which they were confronted?" Each consultation would take the format of a practical working party with much of the activity taking place in small groups of 5 or 6. It was expected that there would be practical outcomes that would provide a "smallish" pool of teaching materials including films, posters and cartoons, simulation exercises and files of evidence relating to particular problems. The hope was that this work could also be shared and tested in other countries to enable a comparative study to be made.⁵⁷

In the end there were 38 participants at York and 45 at Brighton. (Cost of the weekends including rooms, meals, conference papers and materials - £10) The York conference attendees viewed the issue as being how to get the standard subjects tilted with more of a world perspective whereas one group at Brighton produced a 'core course' covering 5 years and one third of the curriculum. Henderson made the observation that this core course would bring the project more in line with the objectives of the Leverhulme grant.⁵⁸

In November 1973 Richardson presented a paper on the World Studies Project and its achievements to date at a DES course attended by Shirley Williams (DES course no.

⁵⁶ RR/1 Minutes of the EAC Trustees 21st November 1973

⁵⁷ RR/7 23rd November 1973 – Richardson's notes

⁵⁸ RR/1 4th December 1973 Minutes of 6th meeting of Guiding group

719). Held in Bournemouth the course was titled 'The Place of World Studies in the Education of Teachers' and was attended by representatives from 30-40 Colleges of Education including Principals, deputy Principals and Lecturers. They met to consider the need for designing and adapting inter-disciplinary World Studies courses and to examine the practical problems involved in their introduction.⁵⁹

The success of the autumn 1973 meetings led to the intention to hold three more similar meetings at York, Oxford and Gloucester in the early summer of 1974 to include overseas teachers. The proposed outcome of the meetings was to produce a one year, four periods per week, World Studies course, aimed at year 9 pupils. Alongside this was the aim to collect work from international pupils so as to be able to launch a trans-national experiment in the autumn.⁶⁰ The first consultations were held at Balls Park College of Education in Hertford (6th April) and then at Keele University (11-13th April). These were called "Only one Earth and how should we teach it?" and were attended with 30 people at each.⁶¹ Similar courses at Leicester and Bath were to follow that were also fully booked and where approximately half of each group were first time attendees and many were teachers. Richardson had commented that the main aim was to attract those interested in teaching about social change and values.⁶²

During 1974 Richardson had been working on a teachers' handbook that was published in draft form by the Project in the autumn of that year under the title of 'Towards Tomorrow'. Some 550 copies were circulated in the UK using firstly their own mailing list, then by speculative mailing to the Humanities Departments of secondary schools and finally through articles/references in various journals and bulletins. On top of this some 340 copies were sent outside of the UK to the USA and Canada (120 copies), India (50 copies) and various other European, African and Latin American countries. Other countries included Israel, Egypt and the USSR.⁶³

⁵⁹ RR/1 4th December 1973 Minutes of 44th meeting of Education Advisory Committee of APGWG

⁶⁰ RR/1 26th February 1974 Minutes of 7th meeting of Guiding group

⁶¹ PWG 15/1 10th March 1975 Guiding group minutes 13th meeting

⁶² PWG 15/2 28th July 1975 Guiding group minutes

⁶³ PWG 15/1 Interim Report to the Leverhulme Trust. April 1975

The handbook came out of the work of the various teacher consultations held in late 1973 and the spring/summer of 1974 and the intention was that some of the practical teaching methods and techniques used and developed at the consultations should be tried out in wider environment. It was intended for use by teachers in secondary schools who were teaching about contemporary world affairs including areas such as the management of resources, the relations between developed and developing countries and the sources and resolution of international conflict.⁶⁴ The handbook included sections that were both controversial and challenging, including 'Global village', 'Freedom fighters' and 'Self-Reliance'. Instead of using the usual textbook approach it used cartoons, short stories, fables, posters and comic strips to promote student participation and advocated the role of play and games to encourage this.

About 100 people accepted the invitation in the handbook to write in with their comments and suggestions and while most encouraging some, particularly from those respondents outside of the UK expressed an unease concerning political bias towards left-wing or radical viewpoints and then a generational bias towards the young.⁶⁵

As the Trust began looking to the future and their funding, Richardson wrote a précis of the Project's work and included an analysis of the funding required to continue the project for the next three years that came to £15000 per year covering salaries and included the post of a Deputy Director, travel and other administrative costs. The committee had made a request to the DES and were hoping that they would agree to fund half of the costs for the next three years. There was also the acknowledgement of the official status that such funding would bestow on the Project.⁶⁶ Following this a meeting was held with Reginald Prentice, Secretary of State at the DES who agreed to give them £7500 a year for each of the next three years (i.e. until December 31, 1979) as contribution towards their costs.⁶⁷

⁶⁴ Richardson R. (1975): Towards Tomorrow: the trials and errors of a handbook. The World Studies Bulletin No. 37 Dec 1975. pp 1-12

⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁶⁶ Parliamentary Archives. PWG 15/5 . A brief statement of progress, 1973-75 and a proposal concerning future development 1976-78.

⁶⁷ PWG 15/2 20th March 1975 note.

A similar application was made to the Leverhulme Trust for £22,500 spread over three years for three year extension to the project. The initial application was rejected with the comment that it "needed to be briefer, made more exciting," ⁶⁸ and although there was an indication that a revised application would be acceptable it was, in the end, turned down. However the success of the DES application meant that Richardson could be reappointed for a further three years. (1st January 1976 until 31st December 1978). ⁶⁹

By now work was well under way on the first of a series of four booklets that they hoped would be published by Nelson. The first was tentatively titled 'World in Conflict' although Henderson felt that 'World in Focus' would be better as it was less negative. There had been a series of discussions over the text for the first booklet so Geoffrey Williams had trialled it with his two children who had been quite positive and not as negative as he thought they would be about it. ⁷⁰

In his 1975 Annual Report to the OWT Trustees Richardson highlighted the fact that by December of that year the project would have run nine residential weekend courses. Three handbooks for teachers were planned, similar to "Towards Tomorrow" which they would replace looking at international conflict, world environment, and world development.

As well as the various conferences he had attended in the UK he had also attended several international conferences in Bombay, Sweden and Switzerland. It was proposed that in 1976 he would become editor of the journal "New Era" which would now include the World Studies Bulletin, ⁷¹ all of which demonstrated the wide-spread recognition that the project was receiving.

⁶⁸ PWG 15/1 19th May 1975 Guiding group minutes 14th meeting

⁶⁹ PWG 15/2 28th July 1975 Guiding group minutes

⁷⁰ RR/1 14th July 1975 Minutes of 17th meeting of Guiding group

⁷¹ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/2 1st July 1975 Richardson's Annual Report to the OWT trustees.

By September Nelson had agreed to print the four booklets during 1976/77, each of 48pp, the first of which, 'World in Conflict', was to be with them by the end of September 1977. There was also discussion centred on the possibility of reprinting 'Towards Tomorrow' at a cost of about £1 each for a run of 2000 copies.⁷²

By January 1976 work was already underway on the second of the four booklets 'Caring for the Planet' that would concentrate on world environmental issues and was published alongside of 'World in Conflict' in September 1977.

Also starting in January 1976 was to be a series of eight workshops running through the Spring Term and taking place at the University of London, Teachers Centre. With the title 'Teaching and Conflict' the aim was to create an environment where teachers could raise and examine questions such as:

- Did they see conflict in schools as a hindrance to learning or as a resource for learning?
- Was it possible or feasible to look at conflicts in school and everyday life and apply insights learnt from them to the international scene?
- Conversely could the study of international relations help pupils to handle conflict creatively both at school and in their wider community?⁷³

A further indication of the growing recognition of the project's work was indicated when Richardson was approached by Oxfam to run a one term duration course at Coventry Education College in autumn 1976.⁷⁴ The course came out of a paper circulated in early 1976 by the Director of Oxfam's Education Department, Og Thomas that speculated upon the way in which the 'Third World' perspective could become part of and benefit a professional studies course.⁷⁵

⁷² RR/1 18th September 1975 Minutes of 18th meeting of Guiding group

⁷³ RR/7 27th January 1976 Programme for a Workshop Course at University of London, Centre for Teachers

⁷⁴ The course was to be one of a pair organised and funded by the Oxfam Education Department, the second was held at King Alfred's College, Winchester and run by John Poxon, a lecturer at the College. This course focussed on the Curriculum section of the Teacher Training degree course.

⁷⁵ Richardson, R. and Poxon, J. (1978): The Third World in Initial Teacher Training. Oxfam Education department. Oxford. p.2 (Copy from Richardson's private papers.)

The course, 'Education for Change', was an elective course offered to third year Diploma students. Thirteen students attended the course that comprised of two preliminary meetings in the summer term followed by ten half-day seminars in the autumn term. The primary aim of the course was to:

"...examine ways in which education can contribute to social change. Case studies will be drawn from Latin America, Africa and Asia as well as from the UK. We shall consider the methodology in the case studies, the views about knowledge and learning which they contain, and the views which are held about the ways in which an education programme can contribute to the needs of the community."⁷⁶

Work was also well advanced on the new teacher's handbook that was expected to be launched in September 1976. The title was to be left to Richardson who finally settled upon 'Learning for Change in a World Society: Reflections, Activities and Resources'⁷⁷ and it was launched at a reception held at the Clark Hall, Institute for Education on 2nd September 1976.⁷⁸

Figure 6. Learning for Change

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The handbook was unusual compared with the normal subject textbook in many ways. First of all it was spiral bound that meant that it could be laid out flat so that pages could be easily copied and it could be used as a centre piece in a small group. More importantly it was not a structured curriculum but a wide ranging collection of ideas, activities, games and exercises that had been developed from the various teacher consultations and from that teachers could use the book to either plan a course of lessons or just a single, individual class as the variety of the contents would

⁷⁶ Ibid. p.3

⁷⁷ Richardson, R. (1976): Learning for Change in a World Society: Reflections, Activities and Resources. London. World Studies Project.

⁷⁸ PWG 15/4 Launch Leaflet 2nd September 1976

work across all of the main curriculum subjects.

Between its launch in September 1976 and April 1977, 2049 copies were sold including 430 copies to 32 countries, with total income of £2588. There were many positive reviews and letters of commendation such that in April 1977 the committee agreed to reprint further 2500 copies to be sold at £1.75 each.⁷⁹

By February 1977 Richardson had sent the text for 'Fighting for Freedom', the last of the four booklets, to Nelsons and this drew some strong criticism from some of the committee. Henderson in particular saw it as: "Undoubtedly a critique of the establishment", "moralistic", and was "depressed by the absence of the rule of law". Richardson commented that while 'Fighting for Freedom' was not a title he would have chosen it was now too late for it and the content to be altered.⁸⁰

'Fighting for Freedom' was published in March 1978, completing the series. ('Progress and Poverty' had been published in December 1977). The sales were solid, if not spectacular as can be seen from the sales details supplied by Nelsons in July 1978.⁸¹

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Table 6. World Studies Project – booklet sales

In August 1977 the project made a successful application to UNESCO to run a series of courses concerning Education for International Understanding (EIU). The courses were

⁷⁹ RR/1 25th April 1977 Minutes of 26th meeting of Guiding group

⁸⁰ Parliamentary Archives. PWG 15/1 3rd February 1977 Guiding group minutes 25th meeting

⁸¹ RR/1 4th July 1978 Minutes of 32nd meeting of guiding group.

run in partnership with and funding from Oxfam and with additional funding from the Ministry for Overseas Development's (ODM) Development Education Fund.

This was to be a major in-service project, the most important events of which were to be a series of 2 to 3 day conferences aimed at exploring EIU but with a specific focus on teacher education. The first conference was held at Charney Manor in Oxfordshire in January 1978, the second, also held in January 1978, in Marlow, Bucks. The title of the Oxford conference, 'What kinds of in-service course do we arrange?' set the theme for the courses which were focussed on course structure and planning.

Further conferences were held at the Croft College in Birmingham in April 1978 that focused on social education, at Westhill College, Birmingham on the general aspects of EIU and finally at Edge Hill College in Lancashire that looked at the initial education of teachers and the role that EIU could play in this.

From the Project point of view the main outcome was the publication of a new teacher training handbook titled 'Debate and Decision'⁸² co-authored by Richardson, Fisher and Marion Flood.⁸³

Perhaps one significant point is the change of emphasis that can be seen in these courses and the content of 'Debate and Decision' to those previously held by the Project. Up to this point the Project courses had been concentrating on involving and informing teachers about World Studies and the various books and manuals produced were all about course content and teaching methods. It is clear that the UNESCO courses were more aimed at people actively involved in EIU⁸⁴ and Development Education such as Oxfam and Christian Aid and other smaller NGOs such as the Minority Rights Group and there were fewer people from the formal education

⁸² Richardson, R., Simon Fisher, S. and Flood, M. (eds) (1979): Debate and Decision: Schools in a World of Change. Centre for Social Education by the World Studies Project. London

⁸³ Flood was Director of the Centre for Social Education which was sponsored by the Centre for Human Rights and Responsibilities. She also presented one session on the Coventry course.

⁸⁴ RR/1 Report to UNESCO World Studies Project – Project No 9853

sector.⁸⁵ 'Debate and Decision' reflected this by concentrating on EIU and change within schools rather than course content.

In September 1977 Richardson presented a paper to the Guiding Committee, the final part of which was looking forward to the future after December 1978 when the current funding ended. In particular this section concentrated on his own future and the very distinct possibility that he would be seeking more secure employment elsewhere. It is clear from his comments that he saw his involvement with the Project coming to a close and although he put forward the possibility of running another research/action project looking at the images that people have of world society the disadvantage was this would leave him financially insecure⁸⁶. He would however continue with the Project until December 1979 if secure funding could be found from either DES or ODM. In any case he would see to completion the manual that was to become 'Debate and Decision', answer any correspondence arising from that and continue to offer advice and support where needed.

In November 1977 Tony Durant and James Henderson (Joint Chairman of the Guiding group) wrote to Shirley Williams, then Secretary of State for Education and Science asking for help to get a further grant of £8500 from the DES to keep the project running through 1979. They reviewed the work carried out so far and laid out their plans for the future that included the UNESCO courses, creating a 'model' in-service day for schools and various publications.⁸⁷

After funding was raised from the ODM, advertising for the post of Field Officer began in September and invitations to apply were also sent to 22 teachers on a list received from ODM that had served overseas.⁸⁸ The successful candidate was Simon Fisher who would start work on April 1st 1979.⁸⁹

⁸⁵ Debate and Decision. pp 47- 49. Course Participants.

⁸⁶ In a private discussion with Richardson 27th October 2011 when I asked him why he had made the transition from World Studies to Multicultural Education his response was "...I did feel I needed a 'proper' job and some security."

⁸⁷ RR/1 3rd November 1977. 'World Studies Project: Review of its work and plans for the future.

⁸⁸ RR/1 4th July 1978. Minutes of 32nd meeting of Guiding group

⁸⁹ RR/1 7th November 1978 Minutes of 35th meeting of Guiding group

As the UNESCO courses drew to a close so the Guiding Committee began to focus more closely on the future of the project. In July 1978 there were discussions about approaching the SCCE for future funding. Richardson saw very little chance of this succeeding as there was little precedent for SCCE funding private projects and they were increasingly initiating their own projects. He did not think that the time “was propitious for interesting it (SCCE) in developing the continuation of the World Studies Project after the Trust’s support ends in December 1979.” Richardson was asked to compile a report on the future of the project which he did and which was circulated in September. The paper entitled “World Studies Project: the future after 1979” advocated setting up a World Studies Resource Centre in a University or College and to be funded by running projects, courses and the production of training books and other resources.⁹⁰ In February 1979 Richardson put forward more detailed proposals for the proposed World Studies Centre that he saw being established by the autumn of 1979 and in full time operation by April 1980 at the latest.⁹¹ The paper provoked much discussion at the April meeting of the Guiding Group on whether or not the Centre should be in the UK, should it be an international version of a teacher’s centre and should it be open to more than teachers? It had to be more than just “a polishing house for them (teachers)” and would need to be a world centre for excellence in World Studies.⁹²

In June Richardson announced that he was leaving to take up an appointment as Multicultural Advisor to Berkshire Education Authority.⁹³ There was some discussion over whether or not Fisher should take over as Director or not, a decision that was postponed until September when he was so appointed and also took over as editor of *New Era*.⁹⁴

⁹⁰ RR/1 19th September 1978. Minutes of 33rd meeting of Guiding group

⁹¹ RR/1 20th February 1979 36th meeting of Guiding group. World Studies Project: Notes on the ‘Centre for World Studies’

⁹² RR/ 13rd April 1979 Minutes of 37th meeting of Guiding group

⁹³ RR/1 18th June 1979 Minutes of 38th meeting of Guiding group

⁹⁴ Parliamentary Archives. PWG 15/10 1st September 1979. Minutes of the 39th meeting of Guiding group

When Fisher first joined OWT it was as Field Officer and during April and June 1979 he carried out a series of school and college visits in Leicestershire, Humberside, London, Bristol, Milton Keynes, Ely and the Atlantic College in South Wales. In his report to the Trust he described how he was “enthused and provoked by the teachers and schools I have visited. But the pupils too have been a source of real fascination...”⁹⁵ From this he began planning a new project to focus on junior and lower secondary schools and this was the basis for the application to the Rowntree Charitable Trust.⁹⁶

Around the same time David Hicks, Education Officer of the Minority Rights Group and a long-time friend of Richardson, also approached Rowntree about funding for a project in peace education that he had been considering for some time. Having taught at St Martin’s College of Higher Education in the 1970s he approached St Martin’s about setting up a Centre for Peace Studies which they agreed to providing funding came from outside and so was now looking for funding⁹⁷.

In his thinking he was:

“tending towards a peace focus because as well as a global perspective it also makes legitimate the study of alternative lifestyles, futures, positive peace, disarmament and Aquarian ideas. In that sense it might extend the focus of WSP, which I would see as the base/focus/thrust/legitimisation for such a centre: ‘Son of WSP’???”⁹⁸

He saw the Centre as playing a similar function to the WSP in that it would cater for both the formal and non-formal education sectors providing workshops, conferences and teaching materials as well as producing papers on peace research and theory.

It is not surprising then, that having received two very similar requests Rowntree suggested that Hicks and Fisher put together a proposal for a joint project to run for three years. This was accepted by Rowntree in June 1980.⁹⁹

⁹⁵ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/1. School visits, May 1979: Some Impressions and recommendations.

⁹⁶ RR/1 25th September 1979 Minutes of 40th meeting of Guiding group

⁹⁷ Hicks, D.: *The Centre for Peace Studies 1980-89*. Westminster Studies in Education.1991. Vol 14 pt.1 pp37-49

⁹⁸ RR/7 Letter Hicks to Richardson 16th November 1979

⁹⁹ Parliamentary Archives. PWG 15/10 28th June 1980. Letter From Joseph Rowntree Trust to Simon Fisher approving joint application.

However the Rowntree grant of just over £59,000 left a shortfall of a little over £38,000 so an application was made to the SCCE for the balance which, contrary to Richardson's earlier opinion, was approved by them in November 1980. Hicks was to begin work on 1st October 1980 and Fisher on 1st January 1981.¹⁰⁰

The project was given the title 'World Studies 8-13' and was to draw upon work not just from the OWT World Studies Project but also SCCE projects such as 'History, Geography and Social Science 8-13', the 'Moral Education 8-13 Project' and the 'Humanities Curriculum Project'.¹⁰¹

Briefly the main aims of the project were to work with teachers to:

- Help to develop the curriculum to prepare children for the 21st century reflecting the sweeping changes in the modern world.
- Promote critical thinking, empathy and autonomy as developed in the various SCCE projects.
- Explore the links between the school, community and wider world.
- Identify the concepts, skills and content appropriate for World Studies in the 8-13 range.
- Identify good practice including how world issues could be handled most effectively in the 8-13 age group.

By the beginning of June 1981 nineteen schools were taking part in a pilot scheme, eleven in Avon and eight in Cumbria, working in cooperation with LEA Advisory staff.¹⁰²

By October 1981 Fisher reported to the EAC of the OWT that forty schools were now involved in the project. It was also noted that 'Learning for Change in a World

¹⁰⁰ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/10 5th November 1980. Letter from Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations approving share of grant to World Studies Project

¹⁰¹ The National Archives. SCC/54/180. SCCE Press release. January 1980

¹⁰² Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/10 3rd June 1981 Minutes of Guiding group of World Studies Project 8 – 13.

Society' had now sold a total of 9000 copies of which about 8% had been sent overseas.¹⁰³

In late 1981 the project published its first guide which was a compilation of three papers published earlier in the year: 'World Studies 8-13: An Introduction to the Project', 'World Studies 8-13: Curriculum Planning, In-service and Dissemination' and 'World Studies 8-13: Some Classroom Activities'.¹⁰⁴ This later section contained over 70 different activities under four headings:

- Getting on with others.
- Learning about other people.
- Understanding the news.
- The world tomorrow.

Each section followed the same pattern; an introduction to the theme, four or five activities explained in detail with a larger number in brief outline and then ended with a list of references and resources. It was intended that the sections could be used as individual topics, as a coherent course or integrated into other curriculum subjects to provide a wider perspective to that subject.¹⁰⁵ The guide was such a success that over the next three years some six thousand copies were sold.¹⁰⁶

Similarly to the SCCE Humanities Curriculum Project the Co-Directors saw dissemination of the project thinking and practice as vital to the well-being of the project so in the spring and summer of 1982 a series of 5 one-day regional meetings were held to bring together LEA Advisers teachers and others who would then set up their own LEA networks. These were followed towards the end of the year with a course for In-service organisers. Attended by representatives from 27 LEAs, the course

¹⁰³ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/9 26th October 1981. Report of the meeting of the Education Advisory Committee of the One World Trust to discuss the World Studies Project.

¹⁰⁴ Fisher, S. and Hicks, D. (1981): Planning and Teaching World Studies: An Interim Guide. School Council Publications.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid. Part 3: Some classroom Activities. P1

¹⁰⁶ Hicks, D.: The world Studies 8-13 Project: a short history 1980-89. Westminster Studies in Education. vol. 13. 1990. Pp 61-80

was held primarily so that the various co-ordinators could share good practice in teaching World Studies.

Once again funding was to become an issue. In May 1982 the directors had made applications to Rowntree and the SCCE for funding to extend the project.¹⁰⁷

In August 1982 Dr Rhodes Boyson, Secretary of State for Education and Science wrote advising that although the SCCE was to be replaced that funding for projects currently running until March 1983 would continue¹⁰⁸.

In March 1983 Hicks advised the guiding committee that although Rowntree had guaranteed income for 1983/1984 he was committed to other activities at the Centre so in order to prevent any confusion his part of the grant should be paid directly to the College Bursar.¹⁰⁹ In May this was finessed further in that Rowntree would fund Hicks full-time but only 50% of this would be for the project and that Fisher would work part-time (60%).¹¹⁰

Hicks' work for the Centre involved writing and getting written a series of 'Occasional Papers'. The first of these '*Education for peace: What does it Mean? Some thoughts for the 1980s.*' was based on a paper that he gave to the International Association for Christian Education, May 1981 in West Germany. It was in this paper that he developed his thoughts on the differences between teaching *about* peace and teaching *for* peace.¹¹¹ Also in 1982 he co-edited a book that examined introducing approaches to global education into secondary and higher education.¹¹²

Work was also progressing on the proposed course handbook. Although the 'Interim Guide' formed part of the basis for the book the full length book had to be, as Hicks

¹⁰⁷ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/10 19th May 1982 Application to extend project

¹⁰⁸ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/9 20th August 1982 Letter from DES.

¹⁰⁹ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/13 22nd March 1983. Letter from Hicks.

¹¹⁰ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/13 5th May 1983 Minutes of Guiding Group

¹¹¹ Hicks, D. (1982): Occasional Paper No1. Education for peace: What does it Mean? Some thoughts for the 1980s. Centre for Peace Studies. St Martin's College. Lancaster. p.5

¹¹² Hicks, D., Townley, C. (eds) (1982): Teaching World Studies: An Introduction to Global Perspectives in the Curriculum. Longman. London

observed, "... much more than a project's collected papers."¹¹³ The SCCE Project Monitoring Group had been tasked with finding a printer and after tender submissions chose Oliver and Boyd in Edinburgh. The SCCE Monitoring Group would be the publishers. Publication was scheduled for the end of 1984/early 1985.

In November 1983 Fisher had also put forward to the Guiding Committee ten suggestions for some possible future World Studies projects. After some discussion it was agreed his third suggestion, the publication of pupil materials for World Studies in the 8 to 13 age-group, seemed the most relevant.¹¹⁴ This latter point became immaterial however when Fisher resigned to take up a position with The Society for Friends in South Africa.¹¹⁵ As the OWT was unable to find funding for his replacement their involvement in the Project effectively ceased at this point although the Guiding Group continued to meet. Hicks became the National Coordinator.

The perennial bugbear of funding continued to rear its ugly head. In October 1983 an approach was made to Bob Dunn, Secretary of State for Education and Science requesting more funding. Dunn's predictable response was to reference to national shortage of funds but that he would do what he could.¹¹⁶ In March 1984 the final response from the DES was that they could commit no more than £12,000 so more funding had to be found. Similarly there had been no success in raising funds for producing the Handbook.¹¹⁷

However Rowntree continued its support and then the successor to the SCCE, the School Curriculum Development Committee (SCDC) also came forward as did Oxfam and Christian Aid.¹¹⁸

Whilst work on the Handbook continued so did the In-Service courses. 1983 saw a second in-service course held in Manchester and the process continued of trying to

¹¹³ Hicks, D.: The World Studies 8-13 Project: a short history 1980-89. p.66

¹¹⁴ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/3 7th November 1983 Guiding Group minutes

¹¹⁵ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/3 8th December 1983 Guiding Group minutes

¹¹⁶ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/3 7th November 1983 Guiding Group minutes

¹¹⁷ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/3 10th March 1984 Guiding Group minutes

¹¹⁸ Hicks, D.: The World Studies 8-13 Project: a short history 1980-89. p.68

create semi-autonomous regional groups. Four areas were gradually emerging, the North, Midlands, South-East and South West. The first DES sponsored regional meeting was held in Lancaster for the North-West group. Held in the Autumn Term the course lasted for six weeks and started and finished with residential weekends. With the title 'World Studies in a Multicultural Society' the course concentrated on good process, group work and practical outcomes.¹¹⁹

1983 also saw Hicks undertaking a month long tour of Australia where he took part in over 50 lectures, talks and meetings. He felt that the practices of World Studies were widely appreciated and supported and that:

"It was a key event in the development of the project, demonstrating both the truly global nature of World Studies and also making the network into an international one."¹²⁰

By July 1984 the next major milestone in the Project's history was now on the immediate horizon, the launch of the teacher's handbook was set for January 1985.¹²¹

The handbook had proved to be popular with teachers from the very start, so much so that by September 1985 the printers reported that sales had reached 3000.¹²²

The handbook comprised three sections. The first,, 'Curriculum Planning', examined the place that World Studies could occupy in the curriculum but more importantly looked at the methods for teaching and learning World Studies and set out the goals of teaching World Studies accordingly:

"... (to) focus on learning to learn, solving problems, clarifying values and making decisions. At the heart of these is the prime importance of enquiry, not just of asking questions but of creating situations in which pupils can formulate questions and find answers for themselves."¹²³

The second and by far the largest section, concentrated on classroom activities, grouped under four headings: 'Here is the World', 'Getting on with Others', 'Other Worlds' and 'The World tomorrow'.

¹¹⁹ Ibid. p.69

¹²⁰ Ibid p.69

¹²¹ Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/3 19th July 1984 Guiding Group Minutes

¹²² Parliamentary Archives PWG 15/13 10th September 1985 Letter from Oliver & Boyd.

¹²³ Fisher, S., & Hicks, D. (1985): World Studies 8-13: A Teacher's Handbook. SCDC Publications Ltd. Edinburgh. p.15

Each chapter followed the same basic structure with an introduction to the thinking behind the activities, the activities, which were then grouped under a series of sub-headings followed by a section that made some suggestions on how teachers could develop the activities further and finally an annotated guide to further resources both for teachers and for the children.¹²⁴

The Introduction also contained a checklist cross referencing activities with their related concepts laid out in a simple chart so that teachers could see how and where activities could work together or how a concept could be developed. (See Appendix 1)

Each activity was given a basic lesson plan that detailed: the purpose of the activity, preparation – the materials required and a suggested procedure or how the activity could happen. Once the activity had happened it would be followed by a discussion session with some suggested questions and finally, some ideas on variations that could be used.

There can be little doubt that the handbook made a major contribution to the theory and practice of World Studies and built upon the concept of active learning developed in the various SCCE projects that had gone before.

In July 1985 the project held its first annual meeting at St Martin's College and over one hundred people attended. Held over four days the programme was grouped under four headings; World Studies Briefings, State of the Planet Briefings, Good Practice Case Studies and Creating Change Case Studies.¹²⁵

The 'State of the Project 1985' report produced at the end of the year listed thirty eight LEAs that were actively promoting World Studies and outlined the in-service activity of each LEA.¹²⁶

¹²⁴ Ibid. pp.34-35

¹²⁵ Ibid. p.70

¹²⁶ Ibid. p.70

During 1985 the project, like many other peace education and peace study programmes came under concerted attack from the political right. The attacks came from two directions but both were orchestrated by the political right. The first of these, as we saw in an earlier chapter focussed primarily on teaching methods and content and the second was spearheaded by Roger Scruton and Caroline (later Baroness) Cox.

In the project's case Scruton's attack came in a book written for the Institute for European Defence and Strategic Studies (IEDSS), a right-wing think-tank set up in 1979 to study European political change and its implication for defence.¹²⁷

I intend to deal with the right wing agenda and attacks in more detail in the next chapter but would observe here that Scruton appears to focus less on the subject of World Studies but more so on its proponents, Richardson, Fisher, Hicks and Selby as well as the United Nations Association, Oxfam, Christian Aid and ODA to name but a few. Scruton also concentrated on 'The Third Worldist perspective' and its desire for a "total radicalisation of the curriculum",¹²⁸ describing it as: "...the latest manifestation of a perennial radical sentiment."¹²⁹ In the end Scruton's inaccurate and poorly researched book probably did little to dent the work of the project or even World Studies in general.

The project continued to go from strength to strength and by the end of the 1986 school year there were some forty LEAs involved in the project and the Handbook had sold more than 6000 copies. More importantly they had secured funding for a further three years from a combination of the Commission for European Communities, Oxfam and Christian Aid. With the security that the new funding provided the project set out to make a significant increase of LEAs taking part, the intention was to get to fifty so representing about half the LEAs in England and Wales, run more teacher training

¹²⁷ Scruton, R. (1985): World Studies: Education or Indoctrination? Institute for European Defence and Strategic Studies. London

¹²⁸ Ibid. p. 23

¹²⁹ Ibid. p.9

course and seminars, publish new teaching materials and run national Conferences in 1987 and 1989.¹³⁰

By the end of the 1987 school year the Handbook had sold more than 10,000 copies and its success led to the decision to produce a second one. The intention was that this one would be written by a group of contributors, each with expertise in a particular area of World Studies and would centre around five issue-based case studies that would form a coherent module for the students. Work on the Handbook began in earnest in 1987 and would be co-authored by Hicks and Miriam Steiner¹³¹.

The second national conference was held at King Alfred's College, Winchester but most of Hicks' work was taken up with the writing and editing of the new workbook together with a separate work on peace education.¹³²

However 1988 saw the end run of the project as it stood. As the demands and restrictions of the 1988 Education Reform Act began to make themselves felt, so both the demand for, and the attendance at in-service training courses fell off, although a further 1000 copies of the handbook were sold and a further three LEAs became involved with the project to bring the total number up to fifty, the target set for the end of 1989.

The workbook, published in the summer of 1989 was titled 'Making Global Connections: A World Studies Workbook' and was made up of three parts.

- Part 1. 'Understanding World Studies' concentrated on understanding the philosophies of World Studies, how and what to teach and the place of World Studies in the new national curriculum. It also contained a chapter on political education and the need for political literacy.

¹³⁰ Fisher, S., & Hicks, D. (1985). p.72

¹³¹ Steiner was a Senior Advisory Teacher at Manchester Educational Service and the Project Coordinator for Manchester

¹³² Hicks, D. (ed.) (1988): Education for Peace: Issues, Principles and Practice in the Classroom. Routledge. London

- Part 2. 'Principles into Practice' formed the bulk of the workbook and like the earlier handbook contained a wealth of activities under headings such as 'Gender Issues', 'Food Comes First' and 'Wasted Wealth'. Each section followed the same format with an introduction to the issue under discussion, planning the work, the activities themselves and finally, a resource section. Again in the same manner as the earlier 'Teachers Handbook' a standard format lesson plan was included.
- Part 3. 'Making Connections' had two sections. The first of these approached the issues of whole-school development and whole-teacher development and in particular focussed on equal opportunities, racism and sexism and the role that World Studies could play in understanding and combating these through in-service courses and training, for example. The second section concentrated on the issues of evaluation and the methods of evaluation that would be suitable for curriculum content and the teacher, students' skills and knowledge and the students' interest and attitudes.

The workbook was launched at the project's third national conference held at St Martin's College.

Later that year Hicks left the project and the Centre to take up a position at the Institute for Education, London University and the continued running of the project was undertaken by The World Studies Trust, an educational charity that was established in 1988.

The Trust continued the work of the project in running a series of national conferences on World Studies for teachers and continued to produce handbooks and resources for teachers.

The first new handbook was published in 1993. Titled 'Learning from Experience: World Studies in the Primary Curriculum'.¹³³ It was as the title suggests aimed at the younger section of the 8-13 age group that the initial project had worked with and had a single author, Miriam Steiner who was now the National Coordinator for World Studies 8-13.

The book came out of research that the Trust had carried out in 1991-92 where a group of forty teachers took part in a classroom research exercise observing small groups of children aged between 6 and 13. The exercise ran over two and a half terms, lessons were planned within the framework of the National Curriculum and the topics discussed by the children included the environment, gender roles, other countries and their hopes for the future. The teachers reported that the children grew in awareness, cooperation and communication and that over 70% of the children felt that they learnt through open-ended discussion activities.¹³⁴

Although the book was aimed at teachers and teaching methods it also contained a large number of activities that could be used across the core subjects of the National Curriculum.

¹³³ Steiner, M.(1993): Learning from Experience: World Studies in the Primary Curriculum. Trentham Books Ltd. Stoke-on-Trent

¹³⁴ Ibid. pp 19-23

This was particularly well illustrated by the following diagram:

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“Know your Potato”

Figure 7. The cross-curricular potential of active learning exercises¹³⁵

By now the term ‘World Studies’ was being replaced by ‘Global Education’ and the next work from the Trust, published in 1996, was aimed at Initial Teacher Education (ITE), i.e. teachers in training. Edited by Steiner, the book contained seventeen chapters including contributions from Richardson, Hicks and Steiner.

The book was the result of a joint project between ITE tutors at twelve University Schools of Education and workers from a range of local and national NGOs promoting World Studies, global education and development education, including Action Aid, CAFOD, Christian Aid, Oxfam and UNICEF. The educational NGOs included Manchester Centre for Global Education; Global Futures Project, Bath; World Education Project,

¹³⁵ Ibid. p.96

Bangor and World Studies Project, Manchester. The main aims of the project were to develop courses and modules to bring global perspectives into the curriculum.¹³⁶

Following on from this the Trust embarked on a long term project, again focussed on ITE, that ran from 1999 to 2005. The 'Global Teacher Project' worked with Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to develop training in global issues and to establish global education as a priority in ITE. The project ran in two stages, both of three years duration. The first, from 1999 to 2002, worked with trainees, tutors and school-based mentors on developing aspects of global education in specific ITE courses. The second phase (2002 – 2005) concentrated on helping universities to develop and promote long term changes within their institutions. The Trust worked with a total of fifteen universities over the period of the project, ran three national conferences, produced a regular newsletter and built a website that helped with dissemination of the outputs.¹³⁷

The main output from the programme was a booklet titled 'Supporting the Standards: the Global Dimension in Initial Teacher Education and Training' written by Cathy Midwinter and produced in 2005. The booklet built upon the DFES guidance 'Developing a Global Dimension in the School Curriculum' issued in March 2005 that outlined eight key concepts within the global dimension: global citizenship, conflict resolution, diversity, human rights, interdependence, social justice, sustainable development, values and perceptions. The booklet demonstrated how the eight concepts could be linked to the ITE curriculum and illustrated this as follows:¹³⁸

¹³⁶ Steiner, M.(ed.) (1996): Developing the Global Teacher: Theory and Practice in Initial Teacher Education. Trentham Books Ltd. Stoke-on-Trent. pp. xii-xiii

¹³⁷ Drake, M.: *Global education in higher education: a report on the Global Teacher Project of the World Studies Trust, 1999 – 2005*. The Development Education Journal. Vol. 13, No1, 2006. pp 28-29

¹³⁸ Midwinter, C. (2005): *Supporting the Standards: the Global Dimension in Initial Teacher Education and Training*. World Studies Trust. Manchester

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Figure 8. The Eight Concepts of Global Education

This was to prove the last real output from the Trust.

In March 2012 following my contacts with Richardson and Don Harrison¹³⁹ I was invited to attend a 'World Studies Trust Retrospective' in Birmingham held to see if there was any practical way in which the work of the Trust could continue. Whilst there was a great deal of enthusiasm in the end nothing changed and the Trust has now been dormant since 2007.

6.5 Conclusion

In this chapter and the one before I have examined and detailed the work of four organisations and their contribution to the development of peace education in English secondary schools.

¹³⁹ Harrison's PhD thesis: 'Oxfam and the rise of development education in England from 1959 to 1979' can be found at <http://somer-saults.org.uk/ideasbank.html>

In the section on the Schools Council in this chapter I offered a timeline of their major project in this area and below is a similar chart now including the three World Studies projects.

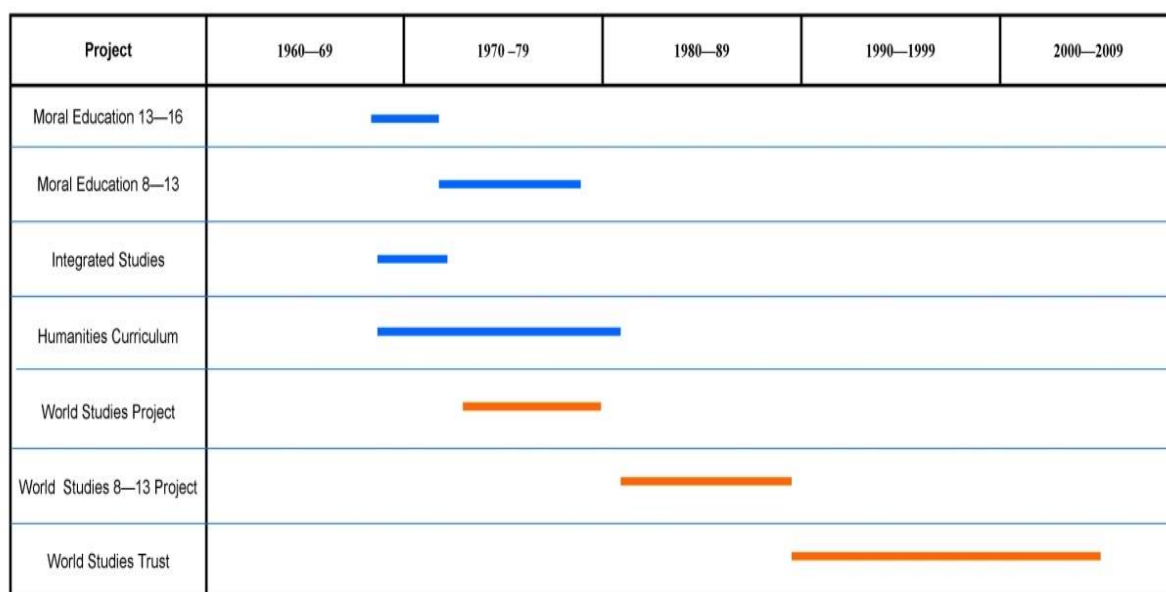


Figure 9 Combined Project Time-line

All of the projects adopted similar methodologies in that they:

- Looked to influence the curriculum content of the formal education sector.
- Focussed on educating teachers rather than children.
- Used active learning techniques such as small groups, debate and discussion.
- In all cases they were child-centred in their approach, the teacher acting as a mentor or facilitator.
- Produced teaching materials that were vastly different to the standard text books in general use.
- Saw dissemination of the project material and results as a fundamental part of the project.

We have also seen the influences and cross fertilization of ideas from the NEF and CEWC, particularly in the World Studies Project. James Henderson, an influential figure in the English NEF and WEF was also an important member of the OWT World

Studies Project Guiding Committee and his views were often reflected in their work. Also on the committee was Dame Margaret Miles who was an active supporter of CEWC and of course there was Shirley Williams who had also been a supporter of CEWC. In the later stages of the World Project we saw influences from Oxfam, Christian Aid and the Development Education sector.

In this chapter both strands, SCCE and World Studies were addressing similar issues in their teaching materials in particular Conflict, Relationships and the Environment. Whilst their output differed in that the SCCE material was in packs against the World Studies' books they both made extensive use of different forms of media, film, audio, cartoon, poetry and both encouraged teachers to build upon these and create a wider resource library.

Both organisations promoted and encouraged teacher participation in in-service courses and both made extensive use of residential weekends that allowed teachers to test the material and techniques being promoted.

Finally both came under fierce criticism from the 'New Right.' I mentioned briefly the attacks on the World Studies 8-13 Project and will look at these in more detail in the next chapter. Attacks on the SCCE however came from within the formal education structure and not just from the right. We saw in an earlier chapter on education how the Callaghan government of the late 1970 began to adopt the concept of education as being market driven. For example the famous 'Yellow Book' stated:

“...because the influence of the teachers' unions has led an increasingly political flavour – in the worst sense of the word – in its deliberations, the general reputation of the Schools Council has suffered a considerable decline over the past few years.”¹⁴⁰

What is perhaps more surprising and somewhat disappointing is the lack of acknowledgment for the role SCCE played in funding and promoting the World Studies 8-13 Project.

¹⁴⁰ Department of Education and Science (1976): *School Education in England: Problems and Initiatives*. London. HMSO cited in Chitty C.: (1989) *Onwards to a New Education System*. p.79

However, both organisations were effective in their own way of raising the profile of peace education in secondary schools even though that phrase was rarely, if ever, mentioned in their published documents.

In the next chapter I will be looking at the work of some of the more peripheral organisations in peace education and as already mentioned, the concerted attacks on peace education in general by the 'New Right'.

Chapter 7: Further development of and resistance to peace education from the 1970s to the 1990s.

7.1 Introduction

Heater asserts that:

“Before c.1980 the terms ‘Peace Studies’ and ‘Peace Education’ were scarcely to be heard in Britain.”¹

In the previous two chapters I have shown, by detailing the work and influences of NEF, CEWC, SCCE and the various World Studies Projects, that while the two terms he offers were perhaps not widely used, the principles and practices central to their philosophy were becoming well established in both the formal and informal school environment.

In this chapter I will be examining the way in which peace education continued to evolve by looking at two major conferences that concentrated on peace education, at the attempts made by some LEAs to place peace education in the formal curriculum and also at the contributions of some of the more influential peace education organisations. Finally I will be exploring the role of the government and media in the attacks made on the study of peace education in the 1980s.

7.2 Peace Education Conferences.

The first of these was held at Keele University in September 1974 and was organised by The World Council for Curriculum and Instruction (WCCI). The WCCI was born out of the work of a North American NGO, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). ASCD had a Standing Committee focussing on international understanding that worked towards promoting greater awareness of the world context of the issues facing education and in particular how world awareness could integrate

¹ Heater, D. (1984): ‘Peace through Education’ p.28

into the curriculum. In 1970 the Standing Committee organised a conference at Asilomar in California, USA from which the WCCI emerged.²

The conference was titled “*Education for Peace: reflection and action.*” This was not only WCCI’s first conference; it was as the title suggested a conference on peace education. Furthermore Haavelsrud points out that the subtitle was included because:

“It stresses the *process* aspect of peace rather than the *state* of peace.”³

Writing in 1987 about the conference Estela Matriano, then President of WCCI says that:

“In addition to case studies and proposals for action, the contributors analyzed, from their different cultural viewpoints, basic questions such as:

What is Peace Education?
Why is it needed?
How should it be done?
Where is it needed most?”⁴

The conference attracted over thirty speakers from twenty different nations and discussed many of the substantive and methodological aspects of peace education. Speakers included Haavelsrud, Richardson, Reardon, Curle, Galtung and David Ingram who presented a paper on the work of the SCCE Moral Education Project titled ‘Building Bridges between people’ which he concluded by saying:

“The present work of the Moral Education Project may seem to be a long way from global issues and international conflicts, but...the foundations for peace are laid in the patterns of day-to-day interaction and only when one has learned to treat considerately those one meets in everyday life can one begin to build bridges towards those one may never meet.”⁵

An important and integral part of the Conference was the amount of time dedicated to working in action groups. Fourteen sessions totalling twenty-five hours were given

²<http://www.wcci-international.org/?mid=history>

³ Haavelsrud, M. (ed.) (1976); *Education for Peace: reflection and action.* (Proceedings of the First World Conference of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction.) Guildford. IPC Science and Technology Press. p.vi

⁴ Carson, R.T., Gideonse, H.D. (eds.) (1987): *Peace Education and the Task for Peace Educators.* Bloomington USA. W.C.C.I. p.3

⁵ Haavelsrud, M. (ed.) (1976).p.165

over to the eleven groups. The groups' topics varied from *'Early education (pre-school): programme resources research'*, *'Teacher education: programmes and resources'*, through to *'Out of school education'*. The group outputs varied from simple statements to complex models on the implementation of peace education programmes that, by taking into account social, religious, political and economic differences, could be used around the world as shown in the figure below.

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Figure 10. Model 2: Dimensions of programme decisions.⁶

Few of the speakers offered definitions or meanings of peace education but one that did was Toshihiko Fujii who speaking about the re-emergence of peace education in Hiroshima offered:

"Peace education should provide the younger generation living in this age of chaos and distrust with love and trust of human beings, offering scientific as well as humanistic perspectives towards our future."⁷

⁶ Haavelsrud. M (ed.) (1976): p.359

⁷ Ibid. p. 126

Although the majority of participants were from the USA the UK contingent of nearly 20 teachers, lecturers (including James Henderson), and other education academics, made up the next largest national group.⁸

I will be spending more time later in this chapter examining the influence of The United World College of the Atlantic or Atlantic College (AC), as it is more widely known, on peace education so for the moment will concentrate on the second influential conference held in June 1981.

This was the product of a smaller conference that ran from 13-16th June 1980, organised by AC's Peace Studies Project and was titled "*Issues in Peace Education*"⁹

It was led by Colin Reid and Stefanie Duczek. Reid was Head of History at AC, led the College's Social Service Group and was Director of the Leverhulme Peace Studies Project. Duczek, seconded from York University, was employed at the College as a Research Assistant, working with Reid and funded by Leverhulme. (Reid left AC in January 1981 to become Head Teacher at St Christopher School in Letchworth.)¹⁰

The conference had 40 delegates, most with a teaching background with others involved in curriculum development, external school activities and some representatives from Catholic and Quaker organisations.

The first session began with the attendees sharing personal experiences of Peace and Violence, and discussing problems of Innovation in Schools.

This was followed by a series of presentations:

- Creating a programme in Peace Education. (Read and Duczek)
- Existing Stereotypes in School textbooks (David Hicks)
- Integrating Study and Action (Garth Allen)

⁸ From an analysis of the members of the action groups in Haavelsrud (ed.) (1976)

⁹ The detail on this conference comes from the private papers of Brenda Thomson who attended the conference.

¹⁰ United World College of the Atlantic Newssheet. March 1981.

The day ended with a series of role play and simulation exercises.

The remainder of the conference was spent as a working group on peace education. Led by Reid and Duczek the group worked at creating the outline of a peace education syllabus, in particular:

- The aims and rationale of a peace education syllabus
- Introduction of Peace Education in the formal Curriculum
- The methodology to be adopted
- The syllabus content

One result of this was a second conference, also titled '*Issues in Peace Education*'¹¹ that ran from Monday 22nd June, to Friday 26th June, 1981.¹²

This conference was attended by 220 teachers, administrators, LEA representatives and others interested and involved in various areas and aspects of Peace Studies and Peace Education.

The aims of the conference were:

- "to draw together teachers from Britain and overseas interested in peace education and to enable the exchange of experience and ideas;
- to view recent research, theory and practice relevant to peace education and to make these more widely available in a published report:
- to develop practical suggestions and strategies for the introduction of peace perspective into education at all levels and
- to help launch a Peace Education Network for Britain and Ireland and to define the practical priorities for such a network (consideration will be given to a proposal from an ad hoc group)."¹³

Keynote lectures were given by:

- Adam Curle, Emeritus Professor of Peace Studies, Bradford University - '*The Nature of Peace.*'
- James O'Connell, Professor of Peace Studies, Bradford University – '*Key ideas in Peace Education,*'

¹¹ Reid, C. (ed.) (1984): '*Issues in Peace Education*'. D. Brown & sons, Cowbridge, Wales.

¹² "Peace education: a working conference for teachers" [Preliminary programme and reservation form]. The Atlantic College Peace Studies Project. [1980]. Imprint. The National Library of Wales. Aberystwyth

¹³ Ibid. p.134

- Robin Richardson, Multi-cultural Education Adviser, Berkshire. – *'Culture, Race and Peace: Tasks and Tensions in School and Classroom.'*
- Colin Reid, Atlantic College Peace Studies Project – *'Objections to Peace Education and some answers from practice'*.

Seven working groups looked at, *'Infants'*, *'8-13 years'*, *'13-16 years'*, *'16-19 years'*, *'Informal Education'*, *'Higher Education'* and *'Counselling'*, as well as nineteen seminars ranging from *'Just War in the Nuclear Age'*, *'Peace and Political education'*, *'From Nationalism to Globalism'* through to *'Reconciliation'*.

As in the 1974 Keele conference the level of output from the groups varied enormously but possibly the most impressive was that produced by the *'8-13 years'* group. Consisting of 28 participants: they split into four smaller groups. Group *'A'* looked at the problems of introducing peace education into the curriculum, group *'B'* was concerned with the role of the teacher whilst *'C' & 'D'* studied the content of peace education. Group *'C'* went as far as producing a detailed *'spiral'* curriculum for a peace education syllabus which can be seen in Appendix 3. (The conference report also included the syllabus guidelines used for the Atlantic College's International Baccalaureate course and the outline for this is also included in Appendix 3 for comparison purposes.)

The conference did not shirk on addressing the issues facing Peace Education both in general and in the attempt to have it introduced into the curriculum.

In addressing the general issues Richardson in his paper: *'Culture , Race and Peace – Tensions in the Classroom'*,¹⁴ adapted the ancient Indian fable of the blind men and an elephant to illustrate the potential problems that could arise if the various sectors of peace education continued to pull against each rather than working together. In Richardson's version six blind people went out to inspect and form a better understanding of elephant education. Each comes back with a different recommendation; firstly that elephant education is political education, the next that it

¹⁴ Ibid. pp 115- 123

is development education, then multicultural education, followed by peace education, followed by equal opportunities education and finally personal and social education.

He then tells how, instead of comparing their conclusions and coming to a common basis for elephant education they each go their separate ways, competing for funding, setting up working parties, running conferences, forming networks etc. and in doing so:

“They failed, however, completely to achieve any of the values which they wished to promote; and failed also to avert any of the threats to which they wished to respond.

They failed even to live out the short span of their own lives with integrity and love.”¹⁵

A salutary lesson for the future.

In his paper: *‘Objections to Peace Education and some answers from experience.’*¹⁶ Reid addressed the practical issues of the place and role of peace education in the curriculum.

He covered aspects such as: the lack of a definition for peace education, that peace education programmes lacked coherence, there was no space in the timetable, the constant criticism that it was biased and that it would lose its effectiveness if it became ‘institutionalised’. For each question/critique he gave examples of good practice based on the work done at Atlantic College.

When looking back at the aims of the Conference it would appear that it met and possibly exceeded them. It certainly brought together a large number of teachers and educationalists for five days and from the conference report it can be appreciated did sterling work in examining and progressing recent developments in peace education theory. As we have observed above the delegates produced a series of practical approaches to placing peace education in the curriculum across the full school age

¹⁵ Ibid. p.116

¹⁶ Ibid. pp. 124-133

range and as we will see later in this chapter provided the impetus for the formation of an influential Peace Education Network.

The conference also provided a platform for the advancement of peace education content in secondary schools after outlining in more detail the work of AC in peace education.

7.3 United World College of the Atlantic

The United World College of the Atlantic (AC) opened in 1962 and was the result of a meeting between British Commandant Air Marshal Sir Lawrence Darvall and Kurt Hahn a prominent German new educationalist. Unlike others in that sector, Montessori, Dewey and Piaget, Hahn was less involved with the educational prospects of kindergarten age children but was concerned about the educational, social and emotional education of the adolescent particularly those in the last two years of secondary education.¹⁷

Hahn's stance was that education was not just about teaching young people the more traditional subjects but also needed to provide them with a sense of respect for themselves, individuals that they would encounter and for their communities and the wider world. To achieve this Hahn believed that schools should have pupils from different races, cultures, religions and social and political backgrounds. As part of their school life pupils would undertake active involvement in their local communities.¹⁸

In 1920, under the patronage of Prince Maximilian of Baden, Hahn opened the first school based on his viewpoint, the Schloss Salem Schule in Baden, southern Germany. Then as persecution under the Nazi regime grew Hahn, who was Jewish, fled to Scotland where in 1934 he established Gordonstoun School. Again Hahn's philosophy

¹⁷ Mahlstedt, A. (2003): Global Citizenship Education in Practice: An Exploration of Teachers in the United World Colleges. Stanford University School of Education. Stanford. USA. p.10 at http://www.channelingreality.com/Niwa/Documents/Mahlstedt_Global_Citizenship_United_World_Colleges.pdf

¹⁸ Ibid. p.10

was the foundation of the school's teaching but here it was accompanied by a harsh physical education regime.¹⁹

AC was more like Schloss Salem than Gordonstoun in that there was less emphasis on physical education but community involvement was still vital. One example of this is that from 1962 the College has had a Royal National Lifeboat Institution (RNLI) boat stationed in its grounds that is manned by staff and students.²⁰

In the need to create a curriculum that would reflect both AC's mission and provide a recognised qualification for its students AC worked with the International School of Geneva (Ecolint) and the United Nations International School (UNIS). Together they developed a two year curriculum that would become the International Baccalaureate (IB). In 1971 AC adopted the IB as its only curriculum, the first school in the world to do so²¹ and in 1976 AC obtained funding from the Leverhulme Trust for a Peace Studies Project that was to produce an IB in Peace and Conflict Studies.²²

The course studied conflict and peace at three analytical levels – the individual, social and international. The 1982 version of the syllabus covered a series of different topics:

- Concepts of Peace and Violence
- The phenomenon of Human aggression.
- Conflicts within society.
- Non-Violence in Theory and practice.
- North-south conflict.
- The super-power conflict.
- International organisations.²³

¹⁹ Boyd, W., Rawson, W. (1965): The Story of the New Education. Heinemann. London. p. 105

²⁰ 'United World College of The Atlantic Student Prospectus.' (c.1980). From the private papers of Brenda Thomson

²¹ Ibid.

²² 'Bibliography for Atlantic College Peace Studies Syllabus'. From the private papers of Brenda Thomson.

²³ Reid, C. (1983): pp. 145-148

However as van Oord points out peace education in the IB was not just limited to Peace and Conflict Studies. It could be found in not only the humanities subjects but also in other areas such as Mathematics and Physics where students were expected to “appreciate the multicultural and historical perspectives of all sciences”

In the same manner aspects of development education was taught in Economics and environmental education was later given a course in its own right.²⁴

The IB in Peace and Conflict Studies is still taught at AC today so has stood the test of time.

The impact of the AC Peace Education Project extended beyond the conference and was utilised by other education authorities and teacher focussed organisations as we will see below.

7.4 LEAs and the introduction of Peace Education into the Curriculum.

There are various examples of LEAs seeking to promote peace education in their curriculum in the 1980s, some of which I will now examine.

In November 1983 Rathenow and Smoker, staff members of the Richardson Institute for Conflict and Peace Research published the results of a survey they had carried out, *‘Peace Education in Great Britain’*²⁵

In May 1983 they sent out survey questionnaires to 125 LEAs that had eight sections. These asked: what topics should be covered in peace studies? Should there be peace studies in schools or not? Did they have peace studies in their school and if so what materials for peace studies were provided? Did the LEA have a working party on peace

²⁴ Van Oord, L.: Peace Education: an International Baccalaureate perspective. Journal of Peace Education. Vol. 5 No. 1 March 2008. pp. 49-62.

²⁵ Rathenow, H-F., Smoker, P. (1983); Peace Education in Great Britain: Some Results of a Survey. Richardson Institute for Conflict and Peace Research, the University of Lancaster. Lancaster.

studies and if so had it made any recommendations? Finally did the Authority require any help or assistance with peace education materials?²⁶

Of the 125 LEAs questioned 69 answered the questionnaire, eight were neutral in their response, 48 either responded negatively or not at all.

In their conclusions the authors conceded that the results of the survey were in many ways partial and incomplete when nearly 50% of those questioned either answered negatively or not at all. Of those that did answer there was clear majority support for the idea of peace studies in schools whether as a standalone subject or incorporated in other subjects.

The work of a small number of LEAs incorporating peace education is set out below:

Nottinghamshire County Council.²⁷

On 14th July 1981 Nottinghamshire County Council passed a resolution that the Joint Advisory Committee of the main Education Committee create a working party on the Development of a Curriculum for Peace Education.

This was:

"In recognition of the initiative taken by UNESCO to promote the growth and development of peace education in schools and colleges in the County."

The resolution went on to say:

"We are all in no doubt that every thinking person subscribes to the view that all the difficult problems which face us in our country, in society as a whole and on an international scale should be resolved by peaceful means. The complexity of the problems before us needs to be clearly understood by the pupils and students in our charge as well as the privilege which they possess of living in a democratic society..."

²⁶ It is interesting to note the authors interchange between the terms 'peace studies' and 'peace education' seeming to imply that they viewed them as one and the same.

²⁷ All of the information in this section comes from: Report to the Education Committee of the Working Party on the Development of a Curriculum for Peace Education (1982) Published by The Education Committee, Nottinghamshire (England) and so no individual footnotes are supplied. A copy of the report was supplied by the British Library document Supply Service.

Consisting of members and teachers' representatives the committee held 12 meetings and their final report was presented to the Education Committee in June 1982 when it was adopted and "led to the development of peace studies in the county's schools"²⁸

The aim of the committee in the report was to provide a balanced view, know the facts, hear the arguments from all points of view and then be able to form its own opinion.

The definition of peace education used by the working party was one supplied by Stephanie Duczek from the Atlantic College Peace Studies Project:

"Peace education attempts to sharpen awareness about the existence of conflict between people and within and between nations. It investigates the causes of conflict and violence embedded within the perceptions, values and attitudes of individuals, as well as within the social, political and economic structure of our society, and encourages the search for alternative including nonviolent solutions and the development of skills necessary for their implementation."

The working party recommendations included:

- all schools and colleges to consider developing a curriculum for peace education.
- that the report is a guiding and a discussion document. Schools retain the right to determine their own curriculum.
- that the LEA provides support for developing peace education in schools and colleges by in-service courses, resources and collections of relevant materials.

Other comments included:

Peace is not just an absence of warfare.

Peace should be a positive affirmation.

A state of peace needs to be maintained.-Positive peace.

An understanding of the individual.

War is not the only form of violence.

²⁸ Letter 'Peace Studies' from Fred Riddell Chairman, Education Committee, Nottinghamshire County Council in 'Education' Vol. 163. No.10 March 1984. p.207

That peace education should include education for nuclear disarmament in line with UN policy.

Peace education is "a dimension of the whole curriculum faced with an acknowledgement that whatever we teach, we are all constantly faced with the issues of peace and conflict in everyday life and the wide world."- *(There is no reference for this quotation in the report.)*

The Working Party recognised that peace education is not a self-contained subject. It should be conceived as part of the schools programme of social and moral education but equally it relates to the work within the traditional subject areas. It cannot be inserted into the curriculum at the expense of existing areas of study.

The aim should be to ensure that there must be clear policy on peace education within the general curriculum policy of the school:

- To understand the meaning and implications of peace and foster the ability to strive for peace in relationships between individuals and groups and nations.
- Establish a sense of responsibility for decisions and actions.
- To develop an understanding of the interdependence of individuals groups and nations.
- Appreciation of biological and social factors which influence social behaviour.
- Develop an understanding of justice and welfare.
- To understand the nature of power and its influence on relationships.
- Develop respect and a sense of personal responsibility for:
 - Individual freedom and human rights.
 - Cultural diversity.
 - The environment.
 - Cooperation within and outside the classroom.

- Thinking globally.
- To develop self-awareness, understanding of others and the skills necessary to enable individuals to play an effective part in building more just and peaceful relationships.
- To develop cooperative and participatory teaching methods that would be consistent with the above.

The Working Party also felt the need to develop curriculum ideas in line with the policy questions above, for example, for aim 2 above, the policy question would be-"what opportunities are offered the pupils to practice personal responsibility?"

One idea offered to this question was to develop school pupil councils that would allow active participation in the affairs of the school.

The Working Party also laid out a series of alternative strategies and their benefits that could be considered including:

- Integration into existing academic subjects.
- Broad-based integrated/interdisciplinary programme that would cover social education, humanities, general studies.
- There could be informal learning through the hidden curriculum and experiential learning through voluntary service, residential courses etc.
- Schools could set up tutor groups using a pastoral approach.
- There could be extracurricular activities-clubs/societies etc.
- There could be an extensive use of topic work.

The report went on to consider the pros and cons of each strategy.

Avon County Council Education Department.²⁹

At the time the report was written Avon County was a non-metropolitan county, formed in 1974 out of the cities of Bristol and Bath, the southern section of Gloucestershire and northern Somerset. It was abolished in 1996.

²⁹ All of the information in this section comes from: Peace Education: Guidelines for Primary and Secondary Schools. County of Avon Public Relations and Publicity Department. Bristol (1983. and so no individual footnotes are supplied. A copy of the report was obtained from the Commonweal Collection, c/o J. B. Priestley Library, University of Bradford.

In the foreword to the report Geoffrey Crump, Director of Education, said:

“Peace Education is one of the difficult and controversial issues. For many it might be tempting to avoid such difficult subjects such as war and violence but if we are to face squarely with our pupils the major problems of our time, then peace and war and violence in all its forms can only be ignored at a price. We owe it to our young people to help them form soundly based views and judgements of their own on such major issues.”

The report was in three sections:

Part 1. The nature and scope of peace education in schools.

This set out the aims of peace education as being:

1. To help pupils understand some of the complex processes leading to tension and conflict at individual, group, national and global levels and to be aware of some of the ways in which these conflicts may be resolved.
2. To encourage attitudes that lead to a preference for constructive and non-violent resolution of conflict.
3. To help pupils develop the personal and social skills necessary to live in harmony with others and to behave in positive and caring ways.

The section went on to address what is seen as the ambiguities and anxieties about peace education that were being expressed at the time. These included the often expressed statement, particularly in the media, that peace education was really about the Nuclear Arms Debate. It raised the valid point that to many the term ‘peace education’ was being confused with the ‘peace movement’ and its unambiguous concern about nuclear war.

It also confronted attitudes of those that felt that it was impossible to try to teach children to ‘understand the world’, that peace education was deliberately encouraging appeasement and was a means of political indoctrination. On this latter point it went on to argue that peace education was no more open to the charge of planned or actual political indoctrination than any other subject in the school curriculum.

When looking at the place of peace education in both formal and hidden curriculum it noted that all schools are unique and this will be reflected in their organisation, style of management, curriculum and general ethos. Each would have its own way of implementing a peace education programme. In general terms it was expected that this could be in the formal subject curriculum, in various programmes of social education, pastoral care and in the 'hidden curriculum' of the school.

When it came to addressing the issues of the hidden curriculum the report accepted that schools themselves are places where conflicts arise and where the challenges of creating a harmonious community are ever present. It examined ambiguous situations such as promoting non-smoking as a health issue and teachers smoking and controlling the behaviour of pupils on one hand if there was uncontrolled aggressive behaviour and verbal abuse by some teachers on the other. It advocated taking a whole school approach as was already happening in many schools in the area and the greatest impact would be where a school as a whole adopted a positive, thorough and agreed approach to peace education. It acknowledged that this would not happen overnight and that to be effective had to be the result of considerable reflection, discussion and planning.

In order to illustrate the possible interaction between the 'Formal' and 'Hidden' curriculum the report contained the illustration of how this could be achieved that can be found in Appendix 2.

Part 2. Peace education in practice in Primary and Secondary schools contained eighteen case studies of existing practice in local schools. Whilst some were taking place in infants schools the majority were at secondary schools and included the introduction of Peace Studies at International Baccalaureate level at the Atlantic College which, while not an Avon school, was included to illustrate Peace Studies was being taught successfully as an

academic subject. I will examine the Atlantic College course in more detail later in this chapter.

The report went to some lengths to emphasise the methods of study were just as important as the content.

Part 3. Further Reading and Resources contained an extensive list of books, films, journals and organisations related to peace education. Many of the books came from the World Studies projects and much of the media items could be found in the SCCE Humanities Curriculum Project resources illustrating the relationship between the various strands of peace education taking place at that time.

The report was a comprehensive guide to peace education and showed the commitment to introducing the subject in a methodical and constructive manner.

Sheffield City³⁰

Unlike the Nottingham and Avon documents this was not commissioned or requested by the Local Authority or the Peace Education Curriculum Group although the LEA did decide that as the survey results could be of interest to them then the questionnaire could be distributed under the backing of the Chief Education Officer.

It was written by Fiona Cooper, a secondary school teacher, and was a report on a survey conducted by a group of Sheffield secondary school teachers who came together to consider the problems and possibilities of implementing Education for Peace and International Understanding (EPIU) in the local secondary schools.

Members of the group were concerned about the lack of information about:

³⁰ This section is based on: Cooper, F. (1984): Education for Peace and International Understanding. No Publisher. Sheffield; so no individual footnotes are supplied. A copy of the report was obtained through the British Library Document Supply Service.

- Whether teachers considered EPIU to be relevant to the aims and objectives of their school.
- Whether or not EPIU was already being given some place either in their curriculum or extra-curricular activities.
- What examples of good practice were in existence that could be shared with other schools?
- What problems were encountered that prevented initiatives in EPIU taking place?
- What support was required to further the development of EPIU in schools?

It was accepted that the survey had several shortcomings but that a lack of finance and time prevented it from becoming more meaningful as a statistical instrument. There was one limited trial carried out before the final questionnaire was sent to the Head Teachers of 38 secondary schools in April 1983, of which 25 replied.

Among those that refused to reply in detail there were concerns expressed that the questionnaire was not value-free, that there were possible underlying political motivations and because of this the Head Teachers were concerned about how the findings might be used.

In its conclusion the report found that, despite the validation of EPIU by UNESCO, and the DES (Circular 9/76) there was overwhelming concern expressed by the majority of Head teachers of the apparent political nature of the subject area and even those Head teachers that personally supported EPIU felt that many of their staff would have strong reservations about its place in the school curriculum.

There seemed to be little place for EPIU in the majority of courses offered and here was a general consensus that EPIU was best incorporated in Religious Education. Although many schools favoured a 'whole school' approach to EPIU there were few examples of how this was happening. There was a general impression given that there were isolated pockets of enthusiasm and commitment in the schools but this was

down to the keenness of individual teachers rather than a planned policy of cross-curricular activity and development.

Altogether the overall picture offered was rather bleak, the report recommended that there needed to be an improved dialogue with teachers, an increase in in-service training, resource development and dissemination of good practice to enable teachers to gain a clearer idea of what a school which consciously educated for peace might look like.

It was felt that if teachers were to have confidence in inserting EPIU into the school then any political and ethical concerns needed to be brought out into the open so that a generally accepted theoretical framework could be established to allow practical curriculum development to take place.

The peace education work in the three LEAs above is probably the best documented examples available but were not the only ones. In Brenda Thomson's files, detailed in the Peace Education Network section below there is a photocopied page from an unidentified magazine or journal that gives brief details of other LEAs where peace education was being actively considered. These included:

Bradford, where the council had established a peace Action Group which had a peace education working party. This group had been given a small grant to purchase materials.³¹

Derbyshire, here the LEA had declared its support for peace studies and had asked its Advisory Committee on Curriculum to draw up guidelines for its introduction into schools. The LEA was one of those actively involved in the World Studies 8 to 13 project.

³¹ This gives an approximate date for the article as the Peace Education Working Party held its first meeting on 22nd July 1986.

Staffordshire's education department had established a small working party on peace education following an invitation to a principal assistant education officer to speak to a meeting of local social studies teachers. The working party, which consisted of both teachers and officers, produced a report from consideration by the authority.

Two other local authorities Manchester City Council and Newcastle had both declared themselves nuclear free cities.

In Manchester the education committee had resolved that "schools be encouraged to include a balanced discussion of the nuclear question in the curriculum of older pupils" and that "a catalogue of resources available to be circulated to schools."

In Newcastle a working party on nuclear issues organised a conference that attracted nearly 100 teachers who then unanimously expressed a wish to see some provision for study of the issues in the curriculum for 14 to 16-year-olds.

Other authorities where the issues were being actively discussed were Barnsley, Dyfed, Humberside, Leicester and Cambridgeshire.

7.5 Teacher focussed Peace Education organisations.

The period also saw the birth and evolution of teacher support organisations that were devoted to providing teachers with support and material in the drive to promote peace education in the formal school environment. I will now look at two of these, the first came out of the two Conferences at AC and the second was born in the growing influence of the nuclear disarmament movement.

7.5.1 Peace Education Network (PEN).³²

On 21st February 1981 a small ad-hoc group met at St Christopher School, Letchworth to discuss the creation of a peace education teachers' network. The meeting was a result of the peace education workshop held at the AC '*Issues in Peace Education*' conference in June 1980.³³

Present at the meeting were: Brenda Thomson, David Hicks, Simon Fisher, Allan Reed, Damian Randle and John Knox. The group agreed that the Network would be invaluable in promoting peace education in schools. It would be aimed at individuals active in peace education, peace research and peace action and would be open to individuals rather than groups. Its principal focus would be on school teachers but interested parents would be welcome. Its primary role would be to encourage regional conferences and workshops and be a conduit for the dissemination of peace education material and good teaching practice.

The Inaugural General Meeting was held at the AC conference on 26th June 1981 and elected co-ordinating group consisting of:

James O'Connell	
Hugh O'Douherty	Elected for 1 Year
Nigel Young	

David Hicks	
James McCarthy	Elected for 2 Years
Brenda Thomson	

Stephanie Duczek	
John Knox	Elected for 3 years
Colin Reid	

The meeting also unanimously adopted a formal constitution that can be found in Appendix 4. This included the aims of the network being:

³² Much of the content of this section is based on the private files of Brenda Thomson, one of the founding members of PEN. I was given access to her files prior to them being given to the Commonwealth Archive at Bradford University. As such the references refer to the document content when given to me rather than the Archive reference.

³³Benda Thomson private files: document dated 26 February 1981– notes on Ad-Hoc steering group meeting at St Christopher School, Letchworth.

- To provide for communication amongst teachers and others wishing to make education a force for peace.
- To provide practical support for such individuals and groups.
- To promote peace education amongst the public at large.
- To promote links with those similarly involved in other countries and with related concerns.
- To promote research and development in peace education

The first meeting of the co-ordinating group was held on 19/09/1981 and the following positions were filled:

Stephanie Duczek – Chair
David Hicks – Membership
James McCarthy – Treasurer
Colin Reid – Secretary

Membership fees were set at £5 for waged members and £1 for unwaged. They also adopted, as the network logo a 'dove and leaves' symbol that Thomson adapted from work by the Polish artist Karol Sliwka that had been published by the World Peace Council.

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Figure 11. Peace Education Network Logo

Minutes of meeting held on 16 December 1981 noted that the first newsletter had been printed and distributed and to cope with the workload Sally Taylor was appointed as Information Officer, responsible for the newsletter production.

Over the next three years nine newsletters were circulated:

PEN 1 – Autumn/Winter 1978

PEN2 - Spring 1979 – ‘Racism Awareness and Racial Peace’

PEN 3 - Summer 1979 – ‘The Peaceable Child’

PEN 4 - Autumn 1980 - “The Nuclear Issue”

PEN5 - Spring 1981 – “Disarmament”

PEN 6 – Autumn 1981 – ‘Security’

PEN 7 – Spring 1982 - ‘Peace Education’

PEN 8 - Autumn 1982 - ‘Northern Ireland – Communities in Conflict’

PEN 9 – 1983 – ‘Peace Games and Drama’

Each newsletter was approximately 16 pages long and was sponsored by Fellowship of Reconciliation, Pax Christi, PPU and Quaker Peace and Service. The introduction to the Newsletter said that they were “Produced by editorial group, including some professional teachers committed to exploring non-violent approaches to social change through word and action.”

Plans were underway for the first Conference/AGM to be held at St. Christopher’s School Letchworth on 16th–18th July 1982. The conference fee of £20 included accommodation and meals.

The Conference was held at the St. Christopher Junior School, Letchworth and attracted 65 delegates. There were no keynote speakers booked; rather the weekend was to be a mixture of sharing of ideas and experiences. There was a small exhibition area with displays from PPU and the Centre for Alternative and Technological Systems together with a bookstall provided by Housmans Bookshop. Delegates could also bring their own materials for display.

As well as the work groups sharing their experiences the Saturday programme centred on the showing of two films. The first 'Pica-Don' a Japanese animated film based on the drawings of the survivors of Hiroshima that ends with the portrayal of a nascent Hiroshima committed to world peace.

The second was a Government produced film "A Better Road to Peace." Intended as a response to CND's campaign for unilateral disarmament the film set out to show the governments' defence policies "preserve the peace and why we believe that multilateral and not unilateral disarmament is the right course to follow."³⁴

It is not difficult to imagine the spirited and passionate discussion that followed these contrasting images.

The 1983 Conference and Annual General Meeting was again held at St Christopher School during 22nd – 24th July and followed a similar format to the previous year with the group meeting on Friday evening to exchange recent experiences and Saturday largely devoted to 'Introducing Peace Issues in Schools: the Teachers Perspective'. The conference was not as well attended as the previous year with 42 delegates attending.

A conference titled "Teaching and Learning about Northern Ireland in Schools" to be held at Christ and Notre Dame College, Liverpool, 8-10 April 1983 had to be cancelled due to lack of support – only one application was received.

Minutes of the meeting held on 16 December 1981 recorded that there were now 80 members, rising to 154 by 30th March 1982. It continued to grow at a steady rather than spectacular rate, at the July meeting Taylor reported that it was up to 210 and by September it was at 270. The majority of members were in employment, not surprisingly: "Primary and Secondary School teachers continue to be mainstay". In April 1986 the Coordinating group minutes noted that membership had increased to 298 although 112 still owed their subscriptions.

³⁴<http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1982/jul/27/nuclear-defence>

The membership tended to be concentrated in certain areas i.e. Bristol and the South West, London and the Suburbs, the Midlands particularly around Birmingham and the Nottingham/Leicester area and there was a good representation in Northern Ireland.

Regrettably Brenda Thomson left PEN towards the end of 1983 to take up a position in the Education Department of Bradford City Council and so her PEN archive material ends at this point. Despite continuing investigation no further material has been discovered to chart the remaining lifetime of the Network.

There are tantalising glimpses of its continuing work in the records of Teachers for Peace, for example TfP's 9th newsletter contains a brief note about the PEN conference held at Beechwood Court, Leeds from 20-22nd July 1984³⁵ and a note in December 1985 that PEN was receiving a grant from the Cadbury Trust to fund the recruitment of a full-time Network Development Officer.³⁶

7.5.2 Teachers for Peace (TfP)

The CND Activist Conference held on 4th-5th May 1981 at St Mary's College, Mile End Road, London had a workshop titled "Teachers for Peace". This was attended by about 40 teachers and the discussion centred on the problems of promoting peace in schools. It was agreed that a further meeting would be held on 26th May where fifteen people decided that 'Teachers for Peace' would be retained as the title for the organization.³⁷ Its mailings and letters carried the statement:

"Teachers for Peace are a group within the Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament which is totally opposed to nuclear weapons and which aims to draw attention to the role that education can play in working for a peaceful world."³⁸

The Constitution adopted at the meeting set out the organisation's aims as:³⁹

³⁵ LSE Archives. CND2008/11/18 9th Newsletter October 1984

³⁶ LSE Archives CND2008/7/5. Minute note. December 1985

³⁷ LSE Archives. CND2008/11/18. 1st Newsletter July/August 1981

³⁸ LSE Archives. CND2008/11/18. 10th September Circular Letter to Members

³⁹ LSE Archives. CND2008/11/18. Constitution.

- a) to provide for communication amongst teachers and others wishing to oppose nuclear weapons and to make education a force for peace;
- b) to provide practical support for such individuals and local groups;
- c) to promote peace education amongst the public at large and to campaign for the abolition of nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction;
- d) to promote links with those similarly involved in other countries and with related concerns;
- e) to promote research and development in the field of peace education.

On the reverse page of the Constitution they defined peace education as;

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Figure12. Teachers for Peace model of peace education

They also adopted as their logo:⁴⁰

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Figure 13 TfP logo

although this would occasionally be amended with the words '*pencils for peace*' running along the bottom face of the symbol.

⁴⁰ LSE Archives. CND2008/11/18. 10th September Circular Letter to Members

We saw above that TFP described itself as “a group within CND” yet later it was to describe itself as an “affiliated body of CND”.⁴¹ The difference being that the first implied that it was a formal section within the CND structure whilst the second implied an association with rather than membership of CND.

This ambiguity of TFP’s relationship with CND was to be the cause of some acrimony between the two organisations. In an open letter to National CND Council members TFP made the call that “CND should set up a specialist section on education”. It addressed constant frustration that although TFP was set up at the CND Activist Conference 1981 and was thought of as a specialist section as stated in CND Information Sheet No6 it received no impetus from or time devoted to it from national CND.⁴²

May 1984 saw a series of letters exchanged between Bruce Kent, General Secretary, Hilary Lipkin, TFP Management Committee and Paul Smoker, Reader in Peace Studies at Lancaster University and Chair of Lancaster Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament, referring to the manner in which TFP was connected to CND and the impression that it gave to the outside world. Smoker asked how can TFP be ‘within CND’ but ‘totally autonomous’. Lipkin’s response was that the answer was to replace ‘within’ by ‘with’. It was a discussion that was to continue for some time without any real resolution.

This disagreement was not the only one affecting TFP. A long simmering internal dispute finally became public when, in October 1984, committee member Brian Bastin wrote to Bruce Kent complaining of the undemocratic behaviour of George and Hilary Lipkin. The Lipkins were founder members of TFP and from the beginning of the organisation had been a major driving force behind its development. In his letter to Kent, Baskin complained of the ‘undemocratic behaviour’ of the Lipkins as well as that there were no accounts available and that the notice to attend the AGM had been sent

⁴¹ LSE Archives. CND2008/11/16. Annual Report 1982/83

⁴² LSE Archives. CND2008/11/16. 16/5/1983 Open Letter

out too late.⁴³ Although there is no record in the archive documents it seems certain that a degree of conciliatory work did take place. In August 1985 Hilary Lipkin wrote to Mick Elliot, CND Treasurer, requesting a donation of £2000 and made the point that a new committee had been elected at the AGM in May 1985. She also attached a flyer that was promoting the “rededication of Teachers for Peace.”⁴⁴

Illustrating the gulf between the two organisations is a report dated 19th March 1986⁴⁵ that records a meeting between an unknown writer and Laurie Gibson from CND with George and Hilary Lipkin, Pat Allen and Chris Sewell from TfP. The meeting, held at the request of the CND Executive was described by the author as “difficult”, that the Lipkins felt let down by CND and “kept going on about past failings and difficulties.” The writer describes the TfP organisation as “a committee of 12, a few other groups around the country and a mailing list of 500” and lists their requests from CND as: the use of the CND offices, desk space, backing and money - “they have debts.” Symptomatic of the problems caused to CND by TfP was that TfP had arranged for Bruce Kent to address the National Union of Teachers Conference in Blackpool and yet did not have the £200 to pay for the room. The writer goes on to comment that while many of CND’s members are teachers they do not join TfP. “Is this just because of the human problem or because such an organisation is not wanted?” is the question asked. “It seems impossible to discuss such things with these particular people but we should be thinking about them”. The author closes with the comment that the problem has to go back to the Executive/Finance and General Purposes Committee for further discussion.

In July 1988 Pat Allen, TfP committee member and long-time CND activist, wrote to Meg Beresford, General Secretary of CND proposing ‘closer links’ to CND but nothing appeared to come of this.⁴⁶

⁴³ LSE Archives CND2008/11/16 Letter Bastin to Kent 24th October 1984

⁴⁴ LSE Archives CND2008/11/16. Letter Lipkin to Elliot. 2nd August 1985

⁴⁵ LSE Archives CND2008/11/16 report ‘Teachers for Peace’ 19th March 1986

⁴⁶ LSE Archives CND2008/11/16 Letter from Allen 14th July 1988

In October 1988 the internal wrangling once again surfaced when Allen sent an open letter addressed to 'Friends' saying that he was withdrawing from TfP and referring to "the return to the committee of the very people whose nominations were rejected by the 1985 AGM in view of the atmosphere of aggression and intimidation with which they were associated."⁴⁷ Somehow the differences were quickly resolved as Allen shortly sent out a second letter saying that he was now carrying on, the letter contained a comment from Chris Sewell "the committee has been elected to do a job so they should get on and do it." At a meeting of the Executive Committee on 1st November 1988 it was confirmed that the Constitution was correct and that the committee had been correctly appointed.⁴⁸

Yet still the rumblings continued. The minutes of the Executive Committee meeting of 24th July 1989 referred to correspondence between the committee and the past Treasurer coming to the conclusion that as earlier requests for the account books had not been answered they had to assume that there were no funds. There was reference to a new Newsletter that had been produced and circulated to the teachers on the "previous secretariat's list" and proposed a subscription of £5 for teachers wanting to receive the newsletter.⁴⁹

This appeared to be the beginning of the end for TfP. In October 1989 the 12th and final newsletter was produced saying that this was to be the last national newsletter and that the organisation had now grown so large that future contact should be through national and regional coordinators. In 1990 a short 'Teachers for Peace Bulletin' was issued published by Trade Union CND giving Lydia Edwards as the editor and contact. A further two bulletins were issued in 1991 and from then on there is nothing on record except for a brief comment made by Chris Sewell in an interview with Ake Bjerstedt of the Department of Educational and Psychological Research at Lund University, Sweden. When asked about the current status of TfP Sewell replied:

"It is on its knees. If tomorrow I was to take a thousand pounds and offer it to any teacher in England, to persuade them to join Teachers for Peace, he or she

⁴⁷ LSE Archives CND2008/11/16 Open letter from Sewell 1st October 1988

⁴⁸ LSE Archives CND2008/11/16 Open Letter from Sewell 13th October 1988

⁴⁹ LSE Archives Minutes of the Executive Committee 24th July 1989.

would refuse it. They are so shaken with the reorganization of education and afraid for their joss, that they would think that I was some kind of an agent trying to bribe them, and if they took a thousand from me they might loose (sic) the job that they had. It is that kind of situation in England at the moment. I anticipate that with Gorbachev and the U.S. president talking, things will get better in a couple of years, but at the moment peace education is at the rock bottom in England. There are only very few people in special schools and special private schools and people like Quakers who are keeping consistently to their beliefs in non-violence.”⁵⁰

While it is somewhat ironic that an organisation devoted to the pursuit of peace education should be constantly embroiled in conflict it should not detract from the excellent work carried out by TfP in furthering the promotion of peace education.

In the year after its formation it reported that over 350 teachers attended a TfP fringe meeting at the CND National Conference held in Sheffield from 26th – 28th November.⁵¹

The Annual Report for the year 1982/83 stated that there were 507 individual members and 54 affiliated groups who were working for a better understanding of peace education.⁵²

Earlier Newsletters noted that there were regional groups in Bristol and Edinburgh, the 4th Newsletter contained a report from Barnet Teachers for Peace and by May 1985 while the individual paid membership had fallen to 327, there were now 61 affiliated groups and over 2000 teachers were receiving the newsletter.⁵³

The newsletters contained not just details of TfP activities but also reports on conferences, articles on other peace education projects and discussion articles such as the one titled ‘Should Teaching Unions affiliate to CND?’⁵⁴

⁵⁰ Bjerstedt. A. (1990): British Perspectives on Peace Education and Its Difficulties: [Conversations With Helen Collinson, Mildred Masheder, Chris Sewell, Patricia White, and The Project "Preparedness for Peace."] Educational and Psychological Interactions No. 100. Department of Educational and Psychological Research, Malmo School of Education, Lund University. (Sweden) pp 24-25

⁵¹ LSE Archives CND2008/11/18 5th Newsletter November 1982

⁵² LSE Archives CND2008/11/16 Annual Report 1982/83 (Undated)

⁵³ LSE Archives CND2008/11/16 Annual report 1984/85 18th May 1985

⁵⁴ LSE CND 2008/11/18 3rd newsletter January 1982.

Although the original objective of producing the newsletter bi-monthly was never achieved, primarily due to the continuing perilous state of TfP's finances they did manage to issue fourteen during the period August 1981 and October 1986. They also produced an impressive resource pack that was supplied to schools for a small fee, listing all manner of resources for peace education, books, films, lesson plans and curriculum guides.

All-in-all TfP, with their relatively large membership and extensive mailing list were an effective voice for the promotion peace education in schools it must be wondered though, how much more effective they would have been if they had not spent so much time and energy in relatively petty quarrels.

7.6 Under attack from the New Right.

In this chapter and the two preceding it, I have made references to the attacks made on organisations and individuals promoting the introduction of peace education in schools.

Rather than having to deal with them piecemeal, in the final section of this chapter I will consider the concerted condemnation of peace education in schools made by academics, politicians and the media. This campaign reached its peak in 1984/85 but began in the early 1980s.

Orchestrated by the New Right and supported by large sections of the news media it gained a great deal of its impetus from members of the Government of the day led to a great extent by the actions of Dr. Rhodes-Boyson.

Rhodes-Boyson was Head Teacher at Highbury Grove School in Islington, before his success in the General Election of February 1974 when he was elected as MP for Brent North. Originally a socialist he moved to the right in the late 1960s and was a scathing critic of the educational reforms of the time. In particular he disapproved of the move away from the strict examination system to one of project-based assessed learning

writing articles in Black Papers 2 and 3.⁵⁵ In 1979 he was appointed Parliamentary Under-Secretary at the Department of Education and Science in Margaret Thatcher's government.

His interest in peace studies became public in April 1982 when he made a speech to the Abington Conservatives Association. In an attack on the suggestion by Neil Kinnock MP, Opposition spokesman on Education, that every school should have a teacher responsible for peace studies he said:

"The left aims to subvert schools by preaching one-sided peace, by political interference, by undermining discipline, and by the use of governors' appointments. They seek to politicize schools in a way completely foreign to the British education tradition of the maintenance of the objectivity for which British schools and education were once famous."⁵⁶

In May 1982 in another speech given to the Sudbury Conservative Association he spoke out against the introduction of peace studies as really meaning an emphasis on appeasement and surrender to totalitarian forces.

"Left wing peace studies in schools... Okay could simply be an encouragement to lay down our arms that anyone walkovers and destroy our society. It is the teaching of unilateral disarmament which is an open invitation to the Soviets to take control of the world by threatening nuclear war."⁵⁷

In June 1982, in a speech to Wembley Conservatives Association he said:

"Teachers must be much more wary they are not unwittingly allowing themselves to be manipulated by the appeasers, and by those who would destroy the very peace and freedom they claim to defend."⁵⁸

Again in June 1982 in the House of Commons as a response to a question from Harry Greenway MP concerning political education in schools he gave the response:

"At the same time, I share his concern about the growth of peace—or, rather, appeasement—studies, because that is basically what they are. Purely by accident I have with me the syllabus from Avon, which suggests that 'violent systems' include: capitalism, Communism, Fascism, imperialism, totalitarian-

⁵⁵ For more detail of the Black Papers see Chapter 4.

⁵⁶ National Archives. ED183-64. Conservative Central Office Press Release. 2nd April 1982.

⁵⁷ National Archives. ED183-64 Conservative Central Office Press Release. 3rd May 1982

⁵⁸ National Archives. ED183-64 Conservative Central Office Press Release 18th June 1982

ism, institutional injustice". There is no mention of Socialism and the problems that that causes, or even of nationalism."

In the same session, in response to a secondary question he said;

"I again quote from the Avon syllabus, which in the section headed 'Bookstalls and relevant literature', states: 'Books, leaflets, posters and any available teaching materials related to the field of peace education will be on sale. In addition, it is hoped to stock appropriate badges, car stickers, postcards, envelope labels and the like'. That would make schools look like a Labour Party rally in Trafalgar Square on a wet Sunday afternoon."⁵⁹

On 14th November 1982 he made an address to the Young Conservatives' conference where he opened his speech with:

"Just as the preacher opposes sin, so would seem that all well intentioned individuals would support peace studies. Yet, just as the problems of the preacher arise when he defines and differentiates the sins of his congregation, so we, as well intentioned individuals, better check what peace studies may come to mean in our country at the present time.

The debate on peace studies must start from the definition of what true peace is. It is neither aggression nor appeasement, either personal or national or international arrangements. It requires the agreement of both parties out of respect for each other and the rest of the school, home or international community. It is living peacefully within accepted law as equal individuals or equal countries."

He continued in the speech to make his point that good schools have peace where the Head Teacher and staff enforce proper relationships and consideration for others. He states that schools that don't have this enforcement are not at peace and that their peace studies should start with imposing order throughout the school.

He ends the speech by returning to the religious theme he began with, when he says;

"I sometimes wonder whether the pressure to introduce peace studies partly arises from the decline of religion and the true study of the nature of man and his identity and the way he should behave within religious law. If so, peace studies will be a poor substitute based on false premises in every way. Parents and governors need to check what it means in their schools, should there be pressure to introduce it in their areas."⁶⁰

⁵⁹Hansard: House of Commons School Curriculum (Politics) Oral answers. 22 June 1982 vol. 26 cc145-7 at <http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1982/jun/22/school-curriculum-politics>

⁶⁰ National Archives. ED183/64 Conservative Central Office Press Release 14th November 1982

It would also appear that Rhodes-Boyson's interest in the subject went much further than making speeches.

In a report made in reply to a request from Rhodes-Boyson's Department, Senior Inspector (SI) JG Slater said that HMI had not yet identified any courses in schools specifically called peace studies or peace education. He observed that much of the interest in peace education was related to a wider interest in education of international understanding, world studies and political education. All of these areas had been growing steadily since 1945 and were firmly established in the curriculum thinking of many schools and colleges. The initiatives of many of those concerned with peace education were originally encouraged by the 1974 UNESCO recommendation concerning education for international understanding, cooperation and peace and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms⁶¹.

In addressing the question of whether peace studies was being professionally taught or not it said that the evidence was that the teachers concerned with social, political and moral issues were "jealously on guard against interference". Most were aware of the problems they taught were sensitive and so an increasing number of LEAs supported by their local Inspectorate are establishing helpful guidelines which help to define the professional responsibilities of the teachers.⁶²

In a comment on a preliminary draft response to a Parliamentary Written Question from Lord Hatch which was to be answered in the House of Lords on 28th July 1982, W.O. Ulrich advised against the Secretary of State setting up a special investigation into peace studies by HMI. He felt that a very respectable constitutional and political case could be made that he would be encroaching on the proper function of individual schools and teachers. He noted that the detailed curriculum in schools was the legal responsibility of the school Governors who normally delegated to the Head teacher.

⁶¹United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: Recommendation concerning education for international understanding, co-operation and peace and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms. Adopted by the General Conference at its eighteenth session, Paris. 19 November 1974.

⁶² National archives. ED183/64 'Peace Studies in Schools.' J. G. Slater 17 May 1982

The Secretary of State's powers in relation to the school curriculum were very general and only related, in broad terms, to curricular policy.⁶³

In further background notes to the Question reference is made to SI Slater's report above and HMI's preliminary report on political education in schools found that:

1. 21% were providing none
2. 22% were providing some courses on political education.
3. 33% were providing political education within broader courses.
4. 70% were providing political education within other subjects e.g. history and geography etc.

Since 1977 there had been a large increase in schools teaching political education as separate courses, mainly in the sixth form for examinations purposes and there had been an even greater increase in teaching political education in modular courses.⁶⁴

As the discussion on the Written Question continued almost to the final moment it was decided that a relatively innocuous answer would be the best course of action.

Lord Hatch's question was:⁶⁵

"To ask her Majesty's government, what is their attitude to the teaching of peace studies in schools and institutions of higher education?"

The proposed response from Lord Elton would be:

"My Lords, decisions on what should be taught and how it should be taught are in the first instance for education institutions themselves, and not for the government. We are, however, concerned that what is offered should always be education and never indoctrination."⁶⁶

Lord Elton moved slightly away from this with the reply

⁶³ National Archives ED183/64. Minute Paper W.O. Ulrich to Mrs Wilde. 21 June 1982

⁶⁴ National Archives. ED183/64. Minute Paper. 22 June 1982.

⁶⁵ As the written question was asked by Lord Hatch in the House of Lords it was answered by Lord Elton who was Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State, Department of Health and Social Security.

⁶⁶ National Archives ED183/64. Draft Answer. 23 July 1982

“My Lords, since the noble Lord's Question lacks any definition of the term ‘peace studies’, I can only answer that the Government regard it as essential that what is offered in any institution should always be education and never indoctrination.”⁶⁷

The mini-debate then centred on the definition of peace studies and passed quietly away.

In a response to this growing interest the Foreign & Commonwealth Office (FCO) had sent out to all schools "The Balanced View", "Peace and Disarmament" and "Wall chart on arms control" which laid out the Government's position on the disarmament issue.⁶⁸

The manner in which these latter items were distributed, directly to schools and teachers, was not welcomed with open arms by all LEAs. In Coventry for example, the Education Committee expressed some anger that the FCO had not followed “well established procedures for distributing material to schools” and they should have been sent to the Director of Education first.⁶⁹

As time progressed so HMI continued to solicit answers from LEAs with regards to peace education in their school. Over a lengthy period they made reports on the position in Nottingham, Avon, Sheffield, and Lancaster County Council updating the Minister on their current situation.

In January 1983 the Avon Peace Education Project Journal asked Kinnock and Rhodes Boyson to share their ideas on peace education with its readers. Kinnock in his response outlined his understanding of the subject:

"The teaching material of Peace Education is fact, its learning method is enquiry, its educational purpose is the nurturing of critical judgement."⁷⁰

⁶⁷ See appendix 5 for the complete debate which can be found at Hansard: House of Lords Oral Answers. 28 July 1982 vol. 434 cc233-5 Peace Studies in Schools at <http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/lords/1982/jul/28/peace-studies-in-schools>

⁶⁸ National Archives. ED183/64. Minute Paper. 22nd June 1982

⁶⁹ Coventry Evening Telegraph. 'Foreign Office broke a school rule.' 27th October 1982

⁷⁰ Kinnock, N.: 'Subversion or Survival?' Avon Peace Education Journal. May 1983. pp. 3-4

Rhodes Boyson replied saying that he had too many requests for articles and pieces so he would have to say 'no' to the request.⁷¹

In July 1983, G A Holley, Personal Secretary to Robert (Bob) Dunn, who had replaced Rhodes Boyson earlier in the year, asked SI Slater to update his report of 17th May 1982 with regard to what progress had been made in the introduction of peace studies in Avon, Bradford, Hertfordshire, Nottingham and Staffordshire. In his report Slater states that the situation remained much as it was in May 1982, that peace studies or peace education as some preferred to call it are still more discussed than taught. He went on to say that more working parties were reported to have been established in Rotherham and Humberside.

He went on to say that purely formal teaching was discouraged rather that measures were used which respected children's experience and attitudes, as were discussions that encourage the analysis of problems that would provide evidence for the justification of their opinions. In his mind there was no doubt that whilst the subject attracted many politically committed teachers, the evidence that HMI had was that both the organisers of the courses, and the directors of the projects, were determined and able to keep separate personal political commitment and balanced political education within which peace education might be found.⁷²

On 19th February 1984 he gave an interview with The Mail on Sunday that was also carried by The Sun⁷³ the following day where he invited parents to report teachers "who use peace studies to push CND propaganda."⁷⁴ He appealed to parents to write to himself or Education Secretary Sir Keith Joseph setting out precise details of teachers giving lessons with a Marxist or CND bias.

On 3rd March 1984 Sir Keith Joseph entered the national debate when he addressed a one-day conference on peace studies organised by the National Council of Women of

⁷¹ Ibid. p.4

⁷² National Archives. ED183/65 Peace Studies. J G Slater 9th August 1983

⁷³ The Sun. 'Keep faith' 20th February 1984

⁷⁴ The Mail on Sunday. 'No peace for ban the bomb.' 19th February 1984

Great Britain. In his speech he said that the teaching of peace and war should be decided on educational not political grounds. He deplored attempts to trivialise the issue, clouded with inappropriate emotion and present it one-sidedly. Arguing for a rational approach to the subject, he said LEAs should support the professionalism of teachers who should seek to present to pupils a balanced and objective position of the issue. Like other important issues it would crop up naturally in the curriculum and there was no need to make special space for studies labelled 'peace'. He would expect teachers' presentation of the issue to be objective, to give a balanced picture to ensure that fact and opinion was clearly separated and that pupils would be encouraged to weigh the evidence and arguments so as to arrive at a rational judgement.

In what appeared to be a blatant attempt to invite a negative response to the issue he went on to repeat Dunn's earlier request:

"I hope however that where parents believe that they have grounds for complaint against the school's or teacher's treatment of the issue of peace and war they will not hesitate to take up the matter with the school, and, if they do not receive satisfaction from the school with the LEA, and ultimately with the holder of my office."⁷⁵

How effective the strategy was could be seen in a Parliamentary answer made by Bob Dunn on 21 November 1984 to a question from Alfred Morris MP who asked how many complaints the Department had received about peace studies in the year to date. Dunn's response was that they had received 67 letters expressing concern about the teaching of peace studies.

The response in the press was more predictable with headlines such as:

"Joseph declares war on peace studies." The Times 4th March 1984.

"Many teachers welcome Joseph's criticism of school peace studies." The Times 5th March 1984.

"Warring over peace" The Yorkshire Post 27th March 1984.

⁷⁵ Department of Education and Science Press notice. 3rd March 1984.

The 9th March 1984 edition of 'Education' however drew an interesting comparison between Joseph's speech and that made by Don Winters, President of the National Union of Teachers (NUT) on 11th March 1984 when launching a union booklet 'Education for Peace'. Like Joseph he called for a balanced approach to the teaching of peace studies, favouring objectivity, balance and rationality. Geoff Foster, Chairman of the union's International Relations Committee went on to say that peace education was much more than teaching about the 'bomb', listing issues such as poverty, race and violence in society as important subjects for discussion in schools.⁷⁶

Outside of Parliament and the media a new academic critique of peace education appeared when the Institute for European Defence and Strategic Studies (IEDSS) published 'Peace Studies: A Critical Survey' written by Caroline Cox and Roger Scruton. Cox and Scruton, along with Roger Marks and others, were later to reappear as founder members of the Hillgate Group whose pamphlets of the late 1980s were an integral part of the New Right attack on the educational system.

In their booklet Cox and Scruton set out what appears to be a damning critique of peace studies firstly in Universities and then schools concluding by saying:

"In sum, we do not believe that the introduction of peace studies into schools is politically innocuous. It is all too often not an educational exercise but an excuse for political propaganda. Its 'innocuous' facade is no more than a facade, behind which a serious political campaign seems to be being prosecuted."⁷⁷

Typical of the media responses was an article by Nick Wood in the Times Educational Supplement of 1st June 1984 where he reports upon "a very critical analysis of anti-war teaching in schools and higher education" under the headline "'Pie-eyed' peace courses accused of bias." A later article in the same newspaper, without an acknowledged author, sets out to present a balancing response to the original article under the headline "'Lop-sided' peace studies defended."

⁷⁶ 'Peace Studies: The issue that unites Sir Keith and the NUT.' Education Vol. 1163, No.10. 9th march 1984

⁷⁷ Cox, C. Scruton, R. (1984); Peace Studies: A critical survey. Institute for European Defence and Strategic Studies. London. p.39

For me, however, the most interesting analysis of the booklet was given by SI Slater when he circulated a brief report to the Senior Chief Inspector, the Chief Inspectors and the Political Education Working Party, that had been set up by the Government within the Inspectorate.⁷⁸

Slater's four page report is a damning critique of the booklet. Apart from general criticism of the content he particularly singles out amongst other things:⁷⁹

- The regular use of emotive and strident language
- References to authority which are neither defined or attributed i.e. the 'sources' are not quoted.
- The use of imprecise criteria such as 'responsible' and 'relevance' when they are not clarified by using 'to' or 'to whom'.
- The use of quotations out of context to mislead.
- Inaccurate or misapplied references.
- Confused use of terminology for example 'courses' with 'guidelines'

On the flyleaf of the booklet there is the usual disclaimer that 'publication does not imply acceptance of the authors' opinions or conclusions'.

"The Institute does not seek to express a corporate view; papers are chosen for publication if they add significantly to present knowledge, or if they are thought to represent an independent and intellectually rigorous contribution to debate."⁸⁰

Slater's conclusions are:

"Judged by those criteria this publication fails. It is intellectually idle and politically mischievous. There is a case for scrutinising rigorously existing practice which occurs under such headings as 'education for peace', 'peace education' and rare though they are in schools, 'peace studies'. This pamphlet does not begin to qualify for this task. Its inadequacies may irritate advocates of peace education. By attacking their integrity it will throw (them) onto the defensive and undermine the morale of many teachers who are trying conscientiously to help young people understand important controversial issues in ways consistent with professional standards and individual integrity."⁸¹

⁷⁸Hansard: House of Commons Written Answers C Deb 19 June 1980 vol. 986 c602W at http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/written_answers/1980/jun/19/political-and-moral-education

⁷⁹ National Archives. Ed183/65. Report 'Peace studies: A critical Survey. J G Slater 20th June 1984. pp.3-4

⁸⁰ Cox, C., Scruton, R. (1984). Flysheet

⁸¹ National Archives. Ed183/65. Report 'Peace studies: A critical Survey.' J G Slater 20th June 1984. p.4

In 1985 IEDSS published a second booklet, this time written by Scruton alone that focussed on World Studies.⁸²

For Scruton:

"World Studies is the latest in a series of school courses designed, in the eyes of their supporters, to rectify the 'bias' in the old curriculum and to gain acceptance for attitudes and values that were either absent from the curriculum or covertly suppressed by it."⁸³

He goes on to place World Studies within the ideology of Third Worldism that argued:

"...like peace studies, World Studies presents itself as a beneficial adjunct to the development of every child, while carefully preparing the ground, through its agenda and resources, for propaganda in a particular cause-the cause, in this case, of Third Worldism."⁸⁴

"...that our prosperity is purchased at the expense of the Third World, and that it is therefore a form of injustice. This injustice can be rectified...only by overthrowing the 'system' which reproduces it."⁸⁵

"By its very nature, World Studies is extremely unlikely to be taught in a manner that encourages the pupil to see the other side of the argument - or rather, the many other sides of the argument - to which the Third Worldist has closed his mind."⁸⁶

It is from this misleading argument that World Studies was part of some major Marxist educational revolution that Scruton was to develop the remainder of his argument. He spends much effort and energy attacking the work of Richardson in particular, as well as Selby and Fisher and Hicks.

As in 'Peace Studies...' he attributes ideological positions to World Studies that were not part of the philosophy of the movement and in particular the drive to rewrite history and in particular British history.

⁸² Scruton, R. (1985): World Studies: Education or Indoctrination? Institute for European Defence and Strategic Studies. London.

⁸³ Ibid. p.7

⁸⁴ Ibid. p.7

⁸⁵ Ibid p.9

⁸⁶ Ibid p.31

"The rejection of traditional history is combined with an assault on traditional Christian values-an assault in which churchmen and Church institutions have enthusiastically joined."⁸⁷

And...

"For him, (i.e. the Third Worldist) British history (like every history) is a tale of injustice and exploitation, and it must be repudiated-along with the religion and culture that have engendered it-above all because it is *British*."⁸⁸

Scruton's work did not appear to have the same impact as 'Peace Studies...' perhaps because World Studies did not have the same high political profile as peace studies and peace education or perhaps because it was too soon after the original work and covered much of the same ground.

7.7 Conclusion

In the previous two chapters I wrote about the history and relationships between several organisations whose activities provided the 'spine' of peace education for secondary schools in England from 1900 to the 1990's. In this chapter I have placed the work of other, smaller organisations together with the work of some LEAs in building on the larger organisations efforts in getting peace education onto the formal curriculum agenda.

I have also detailed some of the problems they faced, particularly the attacks from members of the New Right, the media and members of the government. However it would appear that the attacks did little to impede their work but rather the opposite, they spurred them on to greater efforts.

In the following chapter I intend to examine how far the foundations they laid have advance peace education in secondary school since the 1990s to 2010.

⁸⁷ Ibid. p.54

⁸⁸ Ibid. p.54

Chapter 8: Peace education in English secondary schools from 1990 -2010

8.1 Introduction

In previous chapters I have detailed the evolution of peace education from 1900 to 1990. It can be seen from this historical account that peace education in secondary schools diminished greatly towards the end of the 1980s so the questions are

What happened in the period at the end of the 1980s-early 1990s that caused this apparent disappearance from public view?

Did peace education really disappear or is it still active? If so where and how?

To examine and respond to these questions, in this chapter I will look at the changes in the education system around the turn of the 1990s, particularly the Education Reform Act (ERA) (1988) and the effect this had on teachers, teaching practice and the consequences for the teaching of peace education at that time. I will then consider the introduction and development of Citizenship as a curriculum subject and the relationship between its content and that of peace education.

It is not my intention to try to give a detailed history of citizenship education in England as it has been dealt with many times and in great detail by others.¹

8.2 The Education Reform Act (1988). (ERA) and the effect on teachers and the curriculum.

From the early 1970s the relationship between central and local government was in a continuous state of change with more and more power being taken out of local control.

In the education sector the debate had moved from the virtues or not of comprehensive education to disquiet about standards and the need for some form of

¹ See for example; Heater, D. (2004): A History of Education for Citizenship. Taylor & Francis. London

assessment both at the pupil level and at school level. We saw in Chapter 4 how this debate had been driven by the New Right through the Black Papers of the 1970s and pressure groups such as The Hillgate Group in the 1980s.

These groups wanted complete removal of the LEAs' power in education, a standard national curriculum and changes in initial teacher training so as to produce subject specialists. As part of a long-term strategy of reform in the education system the Conservatives in their 1987 general election Manifesto 'The Next Moves Forward' listed four major reforms for education that included establishing a National Core Curriculum and allowing state schools to opt out of LEA control.²

With success in the 1987 General Election the Conservatives began to turn their promises into action and in the education sector this came with the introduction of the Education Reform Act 1988 (ERA.)

Generally accepted as the most important piece of education legislation in modern times ERA caused a major shift in the power structure of the education system in England and Wales by placing control of educational policy and structure firmly in the hands of central government.

There were five main features of Act that affected secondary schools under state control:

1. *The introduction of a National Curriculum (NC).*

LEAs would no longer have the power to set their own curriculum, in future this would be government sanctioned from Primary through Secondary pupils. There were to be three core and seven foundation subjects and the content would be set by the government. This also prevented teachers from devising their own schemes of work as they saw appropriate.

² 1987 Conservative Party General Election Manifesto: *The Next Moves Forward* downloaded 6th November 2010 from <http://www.conservative-party.net/manifestos/1987/1987-conservative-manifesto.shtml>

2. *The introduction of national tests at the ages of 7, 11 and 14 years.*

The use of teacher assessments to assess pupil progress was to be replaced by a series of Standard Assessment Tests (SATs) taking place at regular intervals in the pupil's schooling. The results would be published yearly by the government in a set of league tables that would allow the direct comparison of schools' performance. Similar data would be published for GCE 'O' and 'A' Level results and school attendance.

3. *Regular independent school inspections.*

The Act called for a regime of rigorous school inspections with every school being inspected once in every six years by HMI. Later the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) was created to take over the role³. The report would be available to the public and where a school was deemed to be failing it would be placed into 'special measures', with more frequent inspections. From then on the emphasis would be on inspection rather than support, which would have to come from the LA.

4. *Local Management of Schools.*

Financial control would be removed from LEAs and schools would be expected to take on the responsibility of managing their own budgets. While this gave schools greater flexibility on how they spent the money it also placed a much greater burden on Head Teachers.

5. *Grant Maintained (GM) Schools.*

Closely linked with point 4 above, schools would be allowed the option of 'opting out' of LEA control completely providing that a majority of parents voted for the change. Designated 'Grant Maintained Schools' they would have complete control of how they were run, not just control of their budgets.

³ Initially inspections were carried out by HMI until it was restructured under the Education (Schools) Act 1992.

Although the power of LEAs had been greatly diminished they were still expected to play a strategic role in education provision and would still have some statutory powers over GM schools in areas such as attendance and free school transport. They would still be expected to ensure that there were sufficient schools and places even though it was expected that the development of a 'free market' in education, where parents would be encouraged to be more active in for example, deciding where their child would be educated, would take control of this.

The potential effect on the position of the development of peace education at the time of the Act is relatively easy to assess.

Firstly, the introduction of the NC removed the power of LEAs to set their own curriculum content, therefore the work on establishing peace education in the curriculum in Avon and Nottingham for example, would be negated. Secondly, the strict curriculum content would prevent teachers from inserting peace education issues into their lesson plans except in relatively modest ways and finally the new burden imposed on teachers and schools in implementing the NC and preparing for inspections and tests would severely limit the time available for peace education.

The combination of prescribed content and constant assessment certainly meant that there could be an understandable tendency to teach what was required to attain the required results to maintain or improve a school's position in the league tables. This in turn might mean a return to traditional teaching methods of the "sit up straight, fold your arms and listen to me" techniques that I suffered in primary school in the 1950s. The focus on progressive learning methods that had been a cornerstone of peace education would be relegated to the backburner.

"In the 60s and 70s, teachers as professionals tended to supervise their own teaching but once they were working to fixed contracts then teaching itself became more directed. I can remember at an Advisors meeting in the 1980s we were told 'accountability is coming in, we have to become more accountable'. By the late 1980s the effect of this accountability process was to say 'we can't leave teachers to develop the curriculum we have to tell them what to do'. Now some of that was needed but the final result was to effectively alienate teachers and in general they became

focussed on SATS and exam results to the detriment of areas such as peace education.”⁴

Certainly while conducting my research, talking to teachers that were teaching at the time this appeared to be the case. The question of course is, did it have to be so?

I did come across some examples, however, that illustrated that it did not have to be that way.

8.3 Peace Education and ERA – examples of Local Authority action.

8.3.1 Leeds City Council.

In 1987 Leeds City Council appointed Juliette and Martin Pierce as Peace Education Development Officers on a job-share basis. Unusually perhaps they were not part of the Education Department but were situated within the Peace and Emergency Planning Office.⁵

After two years and a change in policy they were moved to the Education Department and some of the problems discussed above soon became apparent:

“There was an awful lot of staff training time taken up on ‘How do I teach the National Curriculum?’ and so the space for anything else to be taught evaporated. Then the performance issues took off, everything was about the targets and assessment tests and everyone wanted to know ‘How do I score these children, they’re here and there, the classes move from here to there so how am I to know what they’re doing?’ and that took up a lot of teacher’s energy.”⁶

One consequence of this was that teachers were tending to back away from teaching controversial issues. In order to address this they decided to run a workshop for Head Teachers that rather than concentrating on specific issues, looked at how issues could be taught if, and almost certainly when, children raised them in the classroom.

Over 40 Head Teachers attended and on the back of that success they decided that they would engage directly with the pupils. To do this they organised a series of well

⁴ In a private conversation with Brenda Thompson, 29th October 2011

⁵ Leeds City was a ‘nuclear-free city’

⁶ From private discussion with Juliette and Martin Pierce 8th February 2012

attended sixth form conferences in central city venues. Attendance was a free choice for the pupils and as the conferences ran in mid-week Head Teachers had to consent to the pupils' release. They had well known speakers such as Bruce Kent and Glenys Kinnock and topics and workshops ranged through development issues, green issues and nuclear issues where they concentrated on the place of nuclear power rather than on nuclear weapons. They particularly avoided using the term peace education in any of the conference titles.

A third initiative was to build a resource library with material supplied from sources including PEN and TfP that was made available to any teacher that showed an interest.

In an attempt to gain improved access to schools they then redirected their energies concentrating on the issues of behaviour in schools and running courses for teachers on conflict management techniques. From dealing with handling individual conflict they then broadened it out to pupil-teacher relationships. In 1989 Leeds City Council set up a Positive Behaviour Projects and Martin was seconded to the team. Here he was working with a team of three teachers and three educational psychologists. The project ran for two years following a pilot programme with five primary, three secondary schools and one special school and produced a series of booklets which included a whole-school approach to bullying, dealing with conflict during lunchtime, dealing with gender issues and developing a whole-school approach to general behaviour in school.

Juliette had moved into the Education Department as a policy officer but continued to promote aspects of peace education by working with the drama advisory teacher who was using drama as a means of promoting peace education issues.

The Pierces' approach was somewhat subversive because, as they said:

"When we think about then we didn't see peace education as a discrete, separate discipline as it overlaps with other initiatives. It didn't fit into the curriculum at any one point, it could fit in at different points, and it could be PSE, religious education, drama and all these sorts of things. You could fit it in but with the pressures on the curriculum being more formalised there wasn't a place and you couldn't make a place for it. It

could only work by supplementing what others had to do and hoping you could find teachers with sufficient priority within their agendas for you to be invited in.”⁷

They were not alone in their approach, they were part of a small, informal network:

“There were other people around in the network that had a similar responsibility, in local authorities, such as Wakefield, Sheffield and Manchester at the time and Birmingham, where peace education was becoming visible. In all of those cases I think they were advisory teachers appointed in the education department, I think we were the only officers with that name that were appointed outside the education Department.”⁸

They also received support from the various Bradford groups: the University, PEN and the Bradford Peace Group.

8.3.2 Coventry City Council.

In November 1990 Coventry City Council intended a Commemoration of the 50th Anniversary of the bombing of the City (‘the Blitz’) in a “spirit of peace, friendship and reconciliation.” A number of teachers and others interested in peace education in the City came together in ‘The One World Education Group’⁹ and were commissioned by the City Council’s Education Department to suggest ways in which schools could tackle the subject within their normal curriculum. They produced a 63 page book of information sheets, activities and resources that could be used across the curriculum, recognising as Director of Education, Christopher Farmer said in the introduction to the pack¹⁰:

This item has been removed due to third party copyright. The unabridged version of the thesis can be viewed at the Lanchester library, Coventry University.

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ Ibid

⁹ Some of the teachers were teachers in Church schools where; “There was more freedom to teach controversial issues than in State schools where such issues were often seen as ‘political’ and required formal approval before they could be introduced,” – A private discussion with Anne Farr, one of the founders members of ‘The One World Education Group. 25th June 2012

¹⁰ One World Education Group. (1990): Peace and Reconciliation: Teaching materials to support Blitz Commemoration Week. November 1940 November 1990. Elm Bank Teacher Centre. Coventry. (From the private papers of Anne Farr.)

"I am also very conscious that teachers are hard-pressed, and hope that they will find ways to absorb the opportunity within their normal teaching programmes rather than see it as something to be added onto an already full agenda."

The pack had three sections, the first dealt with the effect of conflict on children, of how war and militarism deprived children of their rights and used personal experiences of Coventry children who were caught up in the Blitz of 1940.

The second section developed the concept of children's rights and in particular children as refugees whilst the final section explored conflict and cooperation, ending by asking children the question 'What future do we want?'

However the Commemoration did not focus just on the Blitz, it also reflected on the City's multicultural nature by putting together an exhibition on the contribution of the 'Black Commonwealth' that would encourage pupil research into World War II and subsequent settlement in Coventry.

The 'One World Education Group' continued to work in other areas and similarly to Leeds ran a series of 6th Form conferences that covered a variety of controversial issues. For example one held on 18th October 1994 was called 'Politics and Peace in Europe'.¹¹ The keynote speakers were Bruce Kent, who spoke on 'The Changing Face of Europe', and Paul Oestreicher who addressed the issue of 'Religion and Nationalism'.

Workshops included:

- Europe and the Arms Trade
- Economic change and Social Conflict
- Refugees
- The United Nations and Security in Europe.

As in Leeds the workshops were held in mid-week and were held at the Elm Bank Teachers Centre rather than in schools.

¹¹ From the private papers of Anne Farr.

In 1995 the 1990 Peace Pack was revisited and refined to include material on the live children in war zones and additional material on conflict and cooperation at a personal level. The pack was issued to coincide with the 50th Anniversary of the destruction of Dresden and schools and children were encouraged to make contact with their counterparts there. Schools were also invited to contribute to funds for the new cross that would stand on top of the Frauenkirche in Dresden which was being rebuilt as a symbol of reconciliation and understanding. (Dresden and Coventry were linked together in the Twin cities programme.)

Once again the pack was not issued in isolation and other events were planned. These included an INSET course for primary and secondary teachers to look at the moral and practical issues facing schools in endeavouring to ensure that pupils understood the significance of the events, a Holocaust conference for 6th formers and a series of primary and secondary pupils' workshops held at Coventry Cathedral.

This was not the only aspect of peace education taking place in Coventry. In 1984 the City Council created the Minority Group Support Services (MGSS) to work with minority groups, helping them to integrate into the wider community. The wider task of MGSS was to raise the profile of the minority groups emphasising the richness of their cultures and how these could enrich the whole community. Typical of MGSSs' work was 'Moving to Coventry'¹² produced in partnership with the LEA in 1992. It was distributed to schools, libraries, community centres and other similar places and was also available to the general population. The 150 page book highlighted the diverse nature of Coventry and was held up of as an excellent example of good practice.¹³

So, here we have two examples, in Leeds and Coventry, of how teachers were finding ways to insert peace education topics into teaching in their local schools but it is probable that they were isolated cases rather than the norm.

¹² Coventry City Council. (1992): Moving to Coventry. Elm Bank Teachers' Centre. Coventry. From the private papers of Balbir Sohal, Citizenship Advisor and MGSS member.

¹³ From a private discussion with Balbir Sohal on 17th November 2011

In July 2010 the Wellcome Trust brought together a group to discuss the impact of National Curriculum for science at a seminar titled: '*Leading Debate: 21 Years of the National Curriculum for science*'. Members of the seminar included some that had been part of the original National Curriculum science working group, people from professional bodies and science teachers.

The Group came to the conclusion that:

"... over the years, the mistranslation of what was originally intended has resulted in:

- many teachers feeling disempowered to teach in a manner appropriate to their students and circumstances,
- a strong sense of over-prescription in terms of the content of the curriculum,
- increased pressures to 'teach to the test' at all levels,
- frequent, apparently piecemeal, changes to the curriculum in order to fix shortcomings and meet top-down policy changes,
- tests and examinations dominating not just what is taught but also how it is taught,
- The group felt that the overall impact has undermined teacher confidence to innovate, leaving them as deliverers of the National Curriculum rather than as developers of a rich and varied science education. This has resulted in a narrowing of the educational experience of young people."¹⁴

If this was the case for teaching Science then it is reasonable to assume that it would have been the case for all other subjects and that the overall effect on teaching peace education expressed by teachers at the beginning of this chapter would have been valid.

In answer to the first question I posed in the introduction to this chapter: 'What happened in the period at the end of the 1980s-early 1990s that caused this apparent disappearance from public view?', I think that it is clear that the passing of ERA and the subsequent changes in the formal secondary education that it brought about were a major factor in the eclipse of peace education in English secondary schools.

¹⁴ Wellcome Trust. (2010): '*Leading Debate: 21 Years of the National Curriculum for science*'. at http://www.wellcome.ac.uk/stellent/groups/corporatesite/@msh_peda/documents/web_document/wtx063344.pdf

The NC took away from LEAs the freedom to set their own curriculum content thus negating the work done by those such as Nottingham and Avon. The added work load imposed on teachers for example and the rest of the educational establishment by the NC and SATs also meant that they were unable to devote time and energy to non-curriculum subjects.

We also saw in the previous chapters the gradual decline in organisations such as Teachers for Peace and the Peace Education Network as well as World Studies and CEWC that all began as the effects of the ERA became felt. It is more than possible, as we saw in the case of Leeds and Coventry, to have some peace education projects taking place but from my research it would appear that these were the exception rather than the rule and depended upon the enthusiasm of the individual teachers linked to a very narrowly focussed project.

To all intent and purposes the drive to insert peace education into the English secondary school environment had been extinguished by the early 1990s.

Towards the end of the 1990s, however, changes in the NC were being advocated that could have a major impact on how the principles of peace education could be formally introduced into the NC.

8.4 The advent of Citizenship in the curriculum.

We saw in chapter 4 that by 1997 the Labour Party had been completely transformed from its traditional left-of-centre role to a party of the centre. Kinnock had been replaced by Blair who led the way in changing the Party's ideology, organisation and structures and led them to an overwhelming victory in the election.

Throughout the campaign Blair had continually asserted that education would be at the centre of their government, their manifesto contained promises to:¹⁵

- Cut class sizes to a maximum of 30 or under for 5, 6 and 7 year-olds;
- Provide nursery education for all four year-olds;
- Improve the low standards in schools;
- Provide access to computer technology;
- Increase spending on education as the cost of unemployment falls.

But detail in the manifesto gave indications that the party would actually continue with the Conservative policy of assessment and measurement as being the criteria for success and in what was to become a mantra for the future..."Standards, more than structures, are the key to success."

After The Education (Schools) Act 1997 had scrapped the Conservative 'Assisted Places Scheme' the Party's first White Paper on Education titled 'Excellence in Schools' included many of the promises made in the election manifesto and most of these were incorporated in The 1998 School Standards and Framework Act.

However the White Paper also emphasised that:

'There are wider goals of education which are also important. Schools, along with families, have a responsibility to ensure that children and young people learn respect for others and for themselves. They need to appreciate and understand the moral code on which civil society is based and to appreciate the culture and background of others.'¹⁶

In their submission to the consultation on the White Paper The Citizenship Foundation said:

"We strongly believe that unless structural changes are made in the provision of PSHE generally and citizenship education in particular, schools will continue to find it very difficult to improve curriculum provision."¹⁷

They were clear on their understanding of what should constitute citizenship in the curriculum:

¹⁵ Labour Party Manifesto (1997); new Labour because Britain deserves better: Britain will be better with new Labour. London. The Labour Party

¹⁶ Dept. of Education and Employment White Paper Cm3681. (1997) Excellence in Schools. London. HMSO. pp9-10

¹⁷ Rowe D and Newton J. (1997): Citizenship Programmes in Schools. Citizenship Foundation. London. p.1

“We believe that citizenship education has a clear conceptual core which relates to the induction of young people into the legal, moral and political arenas of public life. ...Besides understanding, citizenship education should foster respect for law, justice, democracy and nurture concern for the common good at the same time as encouraging independence of thought. It should develop skills of reflection, enquiry and debate.”¹⁸

This focus on the role that citizenship could play in the wider education of students was to usher in programmes such as Citizenship, Social Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) and Personal Social and Health Education (PSHE). Schools were also required to engage proactively with their surrounding communities.

The plan was to follow guidance provided by the National Curriculum Council (NCC) in 1990 showing how this could be met within the curriculum framework.¹⁹ Schools were recommended to teach a further five non-mandatory subjects – Health Education, Citizenship, Careers Education, Economic Awareness and Environmental Education.²⁰ The subjects were to be taught across the curriculum rather than as separate subjects within their own right.

Health and Careers education were already being offered in many secondary schools often as part of a Personal and Social Education (PSE) programme. They would generally have written policies and programmes or subject co-ordinators within the school staff.²¹

In November 1997 David Blunkett, then Secretary for State of Education and Employment put in place an Advisory Group on Citizenship under the chairmanship of Bernard Crick. It was to be a meeting of minds when they first met in July 1997, as Crick later wrote:

"He (Blunkett) said it was one of his major ambitions to get citizenship into the national curriculum. He wanted me to chair a committee to advise *how* best to do that, not *whether*. Neither of us had any faith in cross curricular advisory

¹⁸ Ibid pp 3-4

¹⁹ National Curriculum Council (1990) Curriculum Guidance 3: The Whole Curriculum. York. National Curriculum Council

²⁰ Ironically these covered many of the areas that the Hillgate Group and other right wing activists had railed against in their drive to get a national curriculum established.

²¹ Aggleton, P and Rowe, G (2002) School Knowledge and Social Education in Whitty, G (Ed.) *Making Sense of Education Policy*. London. Paul Chapman Publishing. p.30

papers. I would not have taken it on without knowing his mind on that, a waste of time otherwise; or without knowing his determination."²²

The advisory group, made up of fifteen members and seven external observers, included people encompassing a wide range of views:

"It was a very English sort of committee-experts and teachers were in the minority, churches and voluntary bodies were represented, some distinguished public figures, including Lord Baker, a leading journalist and a representative of the Speaker of the House of Commons who is patron of the committee, and only observers (not voting members) from the DfEE itself, the schools Inspectorate and the QCA."²³

Perhaps the fact that there was no representation from either the government or the four major teaching unions, meant that there was little overt hostility in either Parliament or the media allowing the group to work quickly with very little external interference. This was particularly important as the time available was very short.

The report, 'Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools' (the Crick report), was published in September 1998 for inclusion in a revision of the National Curriculum to take place in 2000.

As Lawton observes:

"The Advisory Group must have worked hard because the final report is not only clearly argued but is a polished and diplomatic document with positive recommendations."²⁴

The major problem that the Advisory Group faced was that there was no generally accepted concept of citizenship in England. The English used to being seen as 'subjects' rather than 'citizens' in the original Roman understanding. Without any explicit reference such as a Bill of Rights for example, there was no authoritative code to set out a formal understanding of a citizen's rights and responsibilities.

The proposed curriculum would bring about a radical change in the way children would be expected to view the world around them and the manner in which they would be

²² Crick, B. (2002): Education for citizenship: The citizenship order. Parliamentary Affairs Vol. 55 (3): pp.488-504

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Lawton D. (2005) p.127

expected to both interact with and react to it. It would be “an ideological intervention in their lives”²⁵. It was the introduction of ‘civic republicanism’ where citizens have a duty to take an active part in public affairs, only in this way would their liberty be preserved.

To this end the report did not attempt to provide a definition of citizenship rather it took several pages to outline in detail what was meant by citizenship and began by saying:

“So what do we mean by ‘effective education for citizenship’? We mean three things, related to each other, mutually dependent on each other, but each needing a somewhat different place and treatment in the curriculum: social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy.”²⁶

Later it summarised these three sectors as:

“(a) Firstly, children learning from the very beginning self-confidence and socially and morally responsible behaviour both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other.

b) Secondly, learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through community involvement and service to the community.

(c) Thirdly, pupils learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values – what can be called ‘political literacy’, seeking for a term that is wider than political knowledge alone.”²⁷

After considerable discussion and consultation the government published its proposals for revising the NC in May 1999.²⁸

These included:

- A joint non-statutory framework for PSHE and citizenship at KS1 and KS2
- A non-statutory framework for PSHE at KS3 and KS4
- A new NC foundation subject for Citizenship at KS3 and 4 to be implemented in 2002²⁹

²⁵ Pike, M. A., (2007): The state and citizenship education in England: a curriculum for subjects or citizens? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, Vol. 39, No. 4, pp. 471–489

²⁶ Crick, B. (1998): Education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy in schools. Final report of the Advisory Group on Citizenship. Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. London. p.11

²⁷ Ibid. pp.11-13

²⁸ The Review of the National Curriculum in England: The Secretary of State’s Proposals

The Citizenship curriculum framework was published in 1999 and stressed the importance of the subject:³⁰

“Citizenship gives pupils the knowledge, skills and understanding to play an effective role in society at local, national and international levels. It helps them to become informed, thoughtful and responsible citizens who are aware of their duties and rights.”

Compared to guidance issued on other subjects, this document at just 31 pages, was the smallest of them all and was deliberately vague on the subject content and how it should be taught. In ‘The National Curriculum Handbook for Secondary Teachers in England Key stages 3 and 4’³¹ Citizenship occupied a single page for KS3 and a page and a quarter for KS4 when no other compulsory subject had less than four pages. In other words, teachers were left to their own devices to a great degree:

“The National Curriculum does not specify how schools should organise their citizenship curriculum and nor does guidance from the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), which simply states that a combination of ways may be necessary to ensure that the requirements of the programmes of study are met consistently and systematically.”³²

Although DfES and QCA published some schemes of work and Ofsted issued guidelines for the inspection of Citizenship, once again they lacked the breadth and depth of those for other subjects.³³ This was a deliberate policy, the QCA made grants to several voluntary organisations, including CEWC, The Citizenship Foundation and the Institute for Citizenship to provide guidance and resources to teachers.³⁴ There was an acceptance that it would be totally inappropriate for the government to be seen to be prescribing either political or moral content for a subject that was intended to promote clear, open and critical discussion in these matters. Schools and teachers would be free to choose how and what to teach depending upon the circumstances in their schools.

²⁹ Ibid. pp. 36-37

³⁰ DfEE and QCA (1999) The National Curriculum for England: Citizenship. Jointly published by Department for Education and Employment Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. London. p.4

³¹ The National Curriculum Handbook for Secondary Teachers in England Key stages 3 and 4 Department for Education and Skills and Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. First published in 1999. Revised October 2004

³² Ofsted (2002): Inspecting Citizenship 11–16 with guidance on self-evaluation. London. p.9

³³ For more detail on each individual subject see

<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20090608182316/standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes3/>

³⁴ Crick, B.(2002) p. 498

Whilst the overall objective was laudable it was hardly surprising that Ofsted, in their first analysis of citizenship teaching said:

“In most schools, where citizenship has been newly established, there may be tentative arrangements as teachers develop, modify and refine provision. Inspection and self-evaluation should be helpful to this process. During this stage of development, in inspecting and reporting on citizenship, allowance should be made for the emergent nature of the subject.”³⁵

Many schools did not appear to understand the full implications of teaching citizenship as a subject, too often it had been lumped together with PSHE even though the NC made a clear distinction between the two. Understandably at the time there were few subject trained teachers but Ofsted observed that although many LEAs and other groups had provided training sessions that much of this was a “source of misinformation”.³⁶ There was a sense of unease between the new status of citizenship as an NC subject and the notion that citizenship was a ‘light touch’ subject lacking depth and rigour. The underlying issues were ones that we saw discussed when looking at the place of peace education in the curriculum; where would it fit and where was the teaching time to come from? Many schools that were teaching citizenship as part of PSHE or across subjects felt that was all that was needed, others thought that by having a team of teachers that taught elements of citizenship in their normal subject lessons would meet the criteria all seemingly unaware of the full implications of the subject in the NC.

The most successful schools were those that treated citizenship as a new subject irrespective of how much work they had been doing before in other areas such as Religious Education and PSHE. These schools completed a detailed audit of what was being done and what needed to be done as part of their planning for its introduction.

Similarly the National Union of Teachers (NUT) had conducted a small scale survey of the impact of the introduction of citizenship on its members. In its submissions to the Government the NUT had come out strongly against having a statutory requirement

³⁵ Ofsted (2002): p.9

³⁶ Ofsted (2002). p.5

for schools to introduce citizenship and PSHE. In their opinion imposition would place an increased strain on schools which were already struggling with the extra work created by the changes in the NC. They argued that schools should be allowed to build upon existing good practice and that encouragement rather than statutory requirement would be a better way of developing citizenship and PSHE.

In 2002 they published the results of the survey carried out in the autumn term of 2001³⁷.

Questionnaires were received from thirty-one primary and forty-seven secondary schools in seventeen LEAs across England and Wales. School representatives reflected the views of NUT members in each school. The LEAs included inner city and rural areas.

The survey results showed that 89% of secondary schools considered that the introduction of the citizenship requirements an unnecessary added burden particularly when combined with the revision of the National Curriculum that was also taking place.

48% of secondary school respondents expressed their concern at the lack of time to implement the citizenship programme properly, to familiarise themselves with the framework and materials, to develop schemes of work and to undertake assessment and monitoring.

Only 26% of the secondary schools reported that citizenship education would be taught as a distinct curriculum subject while 26% reported that it would be taught across the curriculum. 40% of secondary schools proposed to use a combination of the two methods. Where citizenship was to be spread across other subjects, 23% of secondary schools reported that coordinators had been appointed to facilitate the change while 15% reported that they did not know how the provision would be coordinated.

³⁷ National Union of Teachers. (2002): The Citizenship Curriculum: Plain Sailing Or A Drop In The Ocean: Citizenship Survey. London.

Similarly to the Ofsted survey there were complaints about the poor quality and paucity of training opportunities, the lack of teaching materials and resources and that no extra time had been allocated to allow schools to build relationships with local community organisations.

All in all the picture they painted was one very similar to that reflected in the Ofsted findings.

All was not doom or gloom though. In 2004 Ofsted published their first report on the nature and quality of teacher training in citizenship.³⁸ The report examined the provision of teacher training for citizenship and the consequences for the trainees, school and the future of citizenship teaching.

In anticipation of the introduction of citizenship in September 2002 initial teacher training for citizenship teachers had been introduced in 2001. The aim was that there would be a supply of qualified specialist citizenship teachers available to take up posts to coincide with the introduction of the new NC requirements.

By the start of the 2003/04 academic year, there were 206 teachers training in specialist subject training for citizenship for the 11-16 age range and all of the courses were oversubscribed. Many of the trainees had higher degrees, from a wide range of specialist subjects.

As part of their course the trainees were expected to take up placements in school and the Ofsted report found that they were already making a significant contribution to the planning and implementation of citizenship in their placement schools. As the subject was effectively developing from scratch then the trainees were finding they had the opportunity to make a unique contribution to the school community, to take on

³⁸ Ofsted (2004): Initial teacher training for teachers of citizenship 2003/04: overview report . Ofsted . London

subject-related responsibilities and to further their own professional development. This was causing several of the schools to review their approach to citizenship.

The future for the trainees was also bright, many had found jobs, a large majority either teaching citizenship or citizenship with another subject. Some had been given responsibility for the management of implementing or improving citizenship teaching in their schools.

In their Annual Report³⁹ of the same year Ofsted summarised the progress of citizenship as being one of qualified success, less established in the curriculum than other subjects and generally less well taught. They felt however that progress was being made and the reasons for introducing citizenship were worthwhile and could be fulfilled if sufficient time and resources were allocated to it.

In their next assessment of the subject in 2006 they were still finding a similar position.

“Significant progress has been made in implementing National Curriculum citizenship in many secondary schools. However, there is not yet a strong consensus about the aims of citizenship education or about how to incorporate it into the curriculum. In a quarter of schools surveyed, provision is still inadequate, reflecting weak leadership and lack of specialist teaching.”⁴⁰

They were reporting that while there had been considerable progress made in implementing citizenship there was still a great deal that needed to be done because there was still no real consensus about the aims of citizenship education or about how to incorporate it into the curriculum.

In a quarter of secondary schools surveyed, provision was still inadequate, reflecting weak leadership and lack of specialist teaching. Whilst the majority of schools had made good progress in establishing citizenship in their curriculum the number of schools that had worked hard to establish it as a major part of their curriculum was still in the minority. At the other end of the scale there were a small number of schools

³⁹ The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools 2004/05. Ofsted. London. 2005

⁴⁰ Ofsted. (2006):Towards consensus? Citizenship in secondary schools. Ofsted. London

that were still resisting the introduction of citizenship or had an expectation that it would “go away”.

This view was supported in the latest report from the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study (CELS)⁴¹ that was released in 2007.⁴² In the report they illustrated their understanding of the way in which schools approached the teaching of citizenship as:

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Figure 14. Approaches to Citizenship Education (2003)

There were still too few subject specialists teaching citizenship and many non-specialist teachers were lacking in both subject knowledge and teaching approaches. This particularly applied to their teaching of controversial and topical issues which led to dull or irrelevant teaching that failed to engage pupils. Part of the problem was that many teachers were still not sure about the standards expected in citizenship although this appeared to be improving.

⁴¹ NFER had been commissioned by DfES to carry out nine year evaluation of citizenship education in England. The Study began in 2001 and tracked a group of young people from age 11 to 18, who entered secondary school in September 2002 and became the first students to have a statutory entitlement to citizenship education.

⁴² Kerr, D. Lopes, J., Nelson, J., White, K., Cleaver, E., Benton, T. (2007): VISION versus PRAGMATISM: Citizenship in the Secondary School Curriculum in England Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Fifth Annual Report. National Foundation for Educational Research. London.

In the time since the introduction of citizenship as an NC subject, events in the wider world had changed the context in which citizenship was being taught. The death of Victoria Climbié in 2000 had led to a wide ranging public inquiry that in turn led to the government's Green Paper 'Every Child Matters' in 2003. The overall effect was to bring about widespread changes in the organisation of children's services and education and had implications for the understanding of the wider role of the NC. Elsewhere the attacks on New York on 9th November 2001 and London on 7th July had major implications for society as a whole and impacted on the teaching of citizenship.

In January 2007 DFES published the report of an independent review 'Diversity and Citizenship: Curriculum Review'⁴³ that made a series of recommendations aimed at promoting diversity across the school's curriculum and had a direct impact of the content of the curriculum for Citizenship Education. The main recommendation of the report was that the secondary curriculum for citizenship should include a new element 'Identity and Diversity: Living Together in the UK'. The aim was that all pupils would be taught about shared values and life in the UK. The fact that it would be taught as part of a compulsory element of the NC meant that there could be no excuse for avoiding the issue and strengthened the role of citizenship education.

A revised citizenship curriculum was issued in 2007 that came into effect in September 2008.

The new NC for citizenship education at KS3, when focussing on the importance of citizenship, said:

"Citizenship addresses issues relating to social justice; human rights, community cohesion and global interdependence, and encourages pupils to challenge injustice, inequalities and discrimination. It helps young people to develop their critical skills, consider a wide range of political, social, ethical and moral problems, and explore opinions and ideas other than their own. They evaluate information, make informed judgements and reflect on the

⁴³ Ajegbo, Sir K., Kiwan, D. and Sharma, S. (2007): Diversity and Citizenship: Curriculum Review. DFES. London

consequences of their actions now and in the future. They learn to argue a case on behalf of others as well as themselves and speak out on issues.”⁴⁴

The curriculum was organised into sections; Key Concepts, Key Processes, Range and Content, and Curriculum Opportunities and each section had detailed explanatory notes to provide further guidance for teachers.

The Key concepts had now included ‘Identities and diversity: living together in the UK’ and the Curriculum not only set out the content of citizenship but also gave considered guidance on the opportunities that should be offered so that pupils would become more engaged with the subject.

These included pupils having the opportunity to participate in debates, in group and whole-class discussions where they could examine topical and controversial issues. They should be able to work both individually and in groups, taking on different roles and responsibilities as well as taking part in both school and community-based citizenship activities, working with a range of community partners, where possible. They would be expected to join in with different forms of individual and collective action, including decision-making and campaigning. Their work should take into account legal, moral, economic, environmental, historical and social dimensions of different political problems and issues in a range of different contexts, such as school, local, regional, national, European, international and global. To do this they would be expected to make use of, and be capable of interpreting different media, both as sources of information and as a means of communicating ideas. Finally they should be able to make links between citizenship and other areas of the curriculum.

A separate move that would also have a direct impact on the teaching of citizenship was the government’s decision in September 2007 to create a new statutory duty⁴⁵ for the governing bodies of maintained schools to promote community cohesion.⁴⁶

⁴⁴ QCA.(2007); Citizenship: Programme of study for key stage 3 and attainment target. (This is an extract from The National Curriculum 2007)

⁴⁵ This duty came into effect on 1 September 2007. From 1 September 2008, HMCI was required under section 5 of the Education Act 2005 (as inserted by section 154 of the Education and Inspections Act 2006) to report on the contribution made by schools to community cohesion.

In August 2001, Ted Cante was appointed by the Home Secretary to chair the Community Cohesion Review Team and to lead a review into the causes of the summer disturbances in a number of northern towns and cities. The Review Team produced its report (the Cante Report) in December 2001 and made a number of recommendations. When considering education the report said:

“We believe that all schools owe a responsibility to their pupils to promote, expand and enrich their experience, by developing contacts with other cultures (also set out below), or by ensuring that, as far as possible, they are represented within the school intake. Contact with other cultures should be a clear requirement for, and development of, the concept of citizenship education from September 2002 – and possibly a condition of funding. This should be seen as a demanding responsibility.”⁴⁷

Their final recommendation was:

“All schools should be under a statutory duty to promote a respect for, and an understanding of, the cultures in the school and neighbouring areas, through a programme of cross-cultural contact. This could be an expansion of the introduction of citizenship education from September 2002. Schools should not be afraid to discuss difficult areas and the young people we met wanted to have this opportunity and should be given a safe environment in which to do so.”⁴⁸

In 2007, The Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) published ‘Guidance on the Duty to Promote Community Cohesion’ to help schools implement the duty. In this they defined community cohesion in schools as:

“...we mean working towards a society in which there is a common vision and sense of belonging by all communities; a society in which the diversity of people’s backgrounds and circumstances is appreciated and valued; a society in which similar life opportunities are available to all; and a society in which strong and positive relationships exist and continue to be developed in the workplace, in schools and in the wider community.”⁴⁹

To schools the word ‘Community’ meant much more than the immediate school family of pupils, teachers and support staff but included others such as parents and external

⁴⁶ The Education and Inspections Act 2006 inserted a new section 21(5) to the Education Act 2002 introducing a duty to promote community cohesion.

⁴⁷ Cante, T., Chair. (2001): Community Cohesion: A Report of the Independent Review Team. The Home Office. London. p.34

⁴⁸ Ibid.p.36

⁴⁹ This definition was based on a statement made by Alan Johnson, Secretary of State for Education and Skills, speaking in Parliament on 2nd November 2006. It came from the Government and the Local Government Association’s definition first published in Guidance on Community Cohesion, LGA, 2002 which in itself was based on the Cante Report in 2001.

users of the school's premises and services. It went further to include the wider, local community that took in the immediate neighbourhood around the school as well as the town, city or LA area in which it was situated, the UK community and the global community.

In November 2010 CELS produced their eighth and final report. During the nine years, of the survey CELS had collected data from 43,410 young people, 3,212 teachers, and 690 schools.⁵⁰

In their conclusions they said:

“While the picture emerging had been one of the uneven progress of Citizenship in schools during this process, we have also found in this and previous reports some preliminary evidence that citizenship education can make a positive contribution to young people's citizenship outcomes. This is a positive and promising finding, but it also still tentative, as the full analysis of the CELS longitudinal dataset that has taken place in this report has been necessarily exploratory.”

However they qualified their findings by saying that they should be viewed in the context of two key limitations:

First, it was clear that the impact of citizenship education should not be viewed in isolation. It is just one factor that contributes towards shaping young people's citizenship practices, attitudes, engagement and efficacy and that there is a need to adopt a holistic approach that includes not just educational measures, but also some initiatives to tackle broader challenges to citizenship.

Second, there was a firm indication that the format, timing and duration of citizenship education in schools played a critical role in determining its efficacy.

⁵⁰ Keating, A., Kerr, D., Benton, T., Mundy, E. and Lopes J. (2010): Citizenship education in England 2001-2010: young people's practices and prospects for the future: the eighth and final report from the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study (CELS). DES London

Finally, they argued that it was still too early to fully determine the impact of exposure to statutory citizenship learning in schools in England. This would only become clearer as the cohort became adults and citizens with ‘full’ political rights.

To this end there was to be a further survey conducted covering the age range 18 -21 years. The new project, ‘Citizens in Transition - Civic Engagement and Political Participation among Young People 2001-2011’ would examine the cohort’s participation in the 2010 general election and their behaviour and attitudes as young adult citizens. This project was funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC).

As part of the initial reports of this survey Whiteley⁵¹ came to a conclusion that:

“Overall, these results indicate that citizenship education had a significant impact on three key indicators of civic engagement, namely, efficacy, participation and knowledge. This remained true in the presence of a variety of controls designed to measure the social backgrounds and status of the individuals and that of their communities.”

So we can see that by 2010 Citizenship was firmly established in the NC albeit that there were continuing concerns over its delivery and place in the general school ethos.

8.5 Citizenship Education and Peace Education

In the introduction to this chapter I posed the question: ‘Did peace education really disappear or is it still active? If so where and how?’

In answer to that question throughout this thesis I have made various references to the possible correlation between peace education and citizenship education and so I would like to address that relationship in more detail here.

⁵¹ Whiteley, P. ‘Does Citizenship Education Work? Evidence from a Decade of Citizenship Education in Secondary Schools in England’. Parliamentary Affairs Advance Access published December 13, 2012 , doi:10.1093/pa/gss083

In 1996, the International Schools Association (ISA) launched the International Education System Pilot Project (IESPP) which set out to explore the feasibility of creating an international education system that promoted global citizenship. The IESPP consisted of twenty-two schools in fifteen countries and all of the schools taking part had a shared belief in the role that education could play in finding long-lasting solutions to the major problems facing the global society.⁵²

IESPP was based on the belief that education is uniquely placed to provide lasting solutions to some of the major problems facing the world today: warfare, disease, poverty, racism, destruction of the environment and other fundamental issues threatening peaceful co-existence. This put peace at the heart of the project but as they were to discover, there was no formal peace education programme in their curriculum so it was a natural step for them to concentrate on assembling a Framework for peace education that could be used across all of their schools. One anticipated outcome was that it would add to the wider understanding of peace education.

The project adopted a set of core values around which they built their Framework:

1. Values and attitudes related to human rights and democracy
2. Values and attitudes related to cooperation and solidarity
3. Values and attitudes related to the preservation of cultures
4. Values related to the self and others
5. Values and attitudes related to internationalism
6. Values and attitudes related to the protection of the environment
7. Values and attitudes related to spirituality

Alongside these was the expectation that pupils would develop the requisite skills sets and attitudes to make them effective peace makers.

This Framework was structured by the following principles:

1. Each member of society is bound by values relating to human welfare, such as justice, liberty, responsibility, equality, dignity, security, democracy and solidarity.

⁵² International Bureau of Education: Educational Innovation and Information Number 100 September 1999 at <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/publications/Innovation/inno100e.pdf>

2. Each member of society can be an active participant in a local community and should, in turn, be committed to harmony on a global scale, while accepting the diversity of humanity.

3. Each member of society must act individually and communally to protect our world, guaranteeing the right to a sustainable future for generations to come

They presented the Framework diagrammatically:



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Figure 15. A Framework for Peace Education

Similarly to practice in England, while the Framework could be taught as a discrete course it was also taught in some schools across the general curriculum subjects and, as with the citizenship curriculum, the Framework placed great emphasis in community involvement.

From the detail of the programme it is possible to compare its content with that of the KS3 Citizenship Curriculum in place in English secondary schools from 2008.

Citizenship Education ⁵³	Peace Education Framework ⁵⁴
Democracy and justice: key features of parliamentary democracy and government in the constituent parts of the UK and at local level, including voting and election The roles of the law and the justice system and how they relate to young people.	Justice. Freedom of participation. Freedom of thought, conscience and creed; Freedom of religious practice. Mutual respect for the religious observances of others.
Rights and responsibilities.	Awareness of the rights and duties of citizenship. Protection of the rights of all peoples.
Identities and diversity: living together in the UK The changing nature of UK society, including the diversity of ideas, beliefs, cultures, identities, traditions, perspectives and values that are shared. The needs of the local community and how these are met through public services and the voluntary sector The UK's relations with the European Union and the rest of Europe, the Commonwealth, the United Nations and the world as a global community. Migration to, from and within the UK and the reasons for this	Appreciation of one's own culture. Respect for the family and all of its members. Mutual understanding, cooperation and respect among individuals and societies. Awareness of social and cultural change. Interdependence of all people. Respectful of equality among nations. Harmony between nationalism, regionalism and internationalism. Equality of treatment of religions by the State.
Critical thinking and enquiry.	Critical thinking: the ability to distinguish among fact, opinion and belief; to recognize bias and prejudice; to identify true issues and problems, as well as personal assumptions employed in an argument; to reason correctly. Creative thinking: to seek novel

⁵³ See more at: <http://www.teachingcitizenship.org.uk/about-citizenship/citizenship-curriculum/secondary-curriculum#sthash.JLgtzqeF.dpuf>

⁵⁴ International Bureau of Education: Educational Innovation and Information Number 100 September 1999 at <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/publications/Innovation/inno100e.pdf>

	<p>solutions and answers; to think ‘laterally’ and to approach problems from multiple perspectives.</p> <p>Active listening: to listen carefully, and to understand and acknowledge the views of others.</p> <p>Reflection: to stand back from a problem and identify its component parts; to understand thought processes and produce appropriate strategies for dealing with any particular problem.</p>
Advocacy and representation.	<p>Communication skills.</p> <p>Presentation: to be able to explain ideas to others in a clear and coherent manner.</p> <p>Dialectical thinking: thinking about more than one point of view; understanding points of view other than one’s own; being able to construct an argument from either point of view—sometimes contradictory—based on knowledge about the other.</p>
Taking informed and responsible action.	<p>Responsibility: to begin and complete tasks in an appropriate manner; being willing to assume one’s share of the responsibility.</p>
Freedom of speech and diversity of views.	Freedom of speech and expression.
The role of the media in informing and influencing public opinion and holding those in power to account.	<p>Information handling: to be able to form a hypothesis and to put it to the test; to know where to look for answers and how to select and reject information; to weigh up evidence; to hypothesize about eventual outcomes and consequences in order to choose the most appropriate action.</p>
Actions that individuals, groups and organisations can take to influence decisions affecting communities and the environment.	<p>Appreciation of the world’s cultural heritage and human achievement</p> <p>The interdependence of people and nature; and improvement of the environment so as to favour the survival of all species;</p> <p>Promotion of a sustainable environment.</p>
Strategies for handling local and national disagreements and conflicts.	<p>Awareness of global issues and their peaceful resolution</p> <p>Conflict resolution by peaceful means.</p> <p>Negotiation: to recognize the role and limitations of compromise as a tool for the cessation of conflict; to conduct a productive dialogue towards the resolution of a dispute.</p>

	<p>Cooperation: to work effectively with others towards a common goal. Adaptability: to be prepared to change one's opinion in the light of evidence and reason.</p> <p>Respect: listening carefully to others; making decisions based on fairness and equality.</p> <p>Recognizing that others' beliefs, views and ideas may differ from one's own.</p>
How economic decisions are made, including where public money comes from and who decides how it is spent.	<p>Inequalities in wealth and income distribution between nations and within nations.</p> <p>The impact of individual choice on the production and consumption of goods.</p> <p>The role of multi-national corporations;</p> <p>The responsibilities of developed nations.</p> <p>Trade and development.</p>

Table 7. A comparison of peace education and citizenship education

As can be seen there is a great deal of similarity between the two programmes, not just in content but also ethos. Both programmes also emphasised the need for pupil involvement in the classroom as well as in the wider community. There are areas where the framework takes a more international view but the general principles are common across both platforms.

Both programmes also placed emphasis on teaching methods that enabled the pupils to form their own opinions of issues by using critical thinking and careful analysis of the information available to them.

There can be little doubt that if one accepts the wider view of peace education described in chapter 1 rather than the simplistic one of peace education simply being either one of conflict resolution or human rights education or development education or global education or any of the other variations espoused then the correlation between the wider view and citizenship education as it was being taught in English secondary schools can be clearly seen.

In effect citizenship education had absorbed all of the major principles and practices of modern peace education and shared the same aims of educating children in their roles and responsibilities in their world and the wider world around them.

In the next chapter I will look at the strengths and weaknesses of peace education projects outside of the formal education structure, using a case study of a recent project carried out in Coventry.

Chapter 9: Case Study: The Peace Partners Training Programme in Coventry Schools

9.1 Introduction

A case study is a specific, usually unique event that is often used to illustrate a more general principle. It is both the study of an instance in action and of an evolving situation and is used to illustrate the reality of 'what it is like' to be in a particular situation and also used to illustrate the nature of a wider environment.¹

They are commonly associated with a particular group or community of participants, focussing on them and their interpersonal interaction within their physical environment. One of their strengths is that they take place within a 'real' context producing data that is firmly grounded in reality.²

By their nature they are often narrowly focussed on a particular situation. They can be a combination of description, analysis and interpretation that provides rich, vivid data and statistical information.³

Rowley sets out various case study design applications that exist within the qualitative paradigm, a summary of which is presented below:

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Table 8: Case Study Design within the Qualitative Paradigm⁴

¹ Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. London. Routledge, p.253

² Rowley, J.; *Using Case Studies in Research*. Management Research News, Volume 25 Number 1 2002. pp16 – 27

³ Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford. Oxford University Press. pp. 53-55

This research uses a single case study approach and so the differentiation between single case and multiple case designs needs to be clearly made. A single case design is the same as using a single experiment in scientific research. As such there are the obvious dangers of using a single case in a research programme not the least being the temptation to use the results as being indicative of the norm.

This case study will be used solely to illustrate the various tools that are used in teaching peace education in English Secondary schools. It is what Bryman describes as an ‘exemplifying’ case in that it sets out to typify a broader category of which it is a member.⁵

For this research my case study is based on the Peace Partners Training Programme run by Coventry City Council, in conjunction with Coventry University’s Centre for Peace and Reconciliation Studies, Coventry Cathedral and Coventry Peace House. It is used to illustrate how peace education can be developed outside of the NC.

9.2 Background

Coventry City Council’s ‘Coventry Anti-Bullying Strategy for Children & Young People’, issued in March 2006, recognised that bullying was not just a school based problem but that it occurred in a much wider environment and so set out to address bullying in a community-based context.⁶ The strategy:

‘...seeks to address bullying in its broadest sense, by which we mean that we recognise that bullying takes place in the community, not just in schools. We would want to ensure that we move out to the wider community at the earliest opportunity – recognising that bullying is not confined to schools and is not only a school based problem.’

⁴ Adapted from Rowley, p.131

⁵ Bryman.(2008) p.56

⁶ Coventry City Council (2006) Coventry Anti-Bullying Strategy for Children & Young People Coventry p.4

The strategy also recognised that in the past there had been insufficient attention paid to acknowledging and utilising the particular expertise of different organisations within the City. This is still the existing strategy in Coventry's schools.

To address both of these issues a pilot project was implemented with the aim of training adult workers from a range of agencies in conflict resolution skills and cascade this down by training young people as 'Peace Partners' working within both their schools and local community. Input from; Coventry City Council Education Department sections: Services for Schools (SfS) and Children and Family Education Service (CaFES) working with Coventry University's Centre for Peace and Reconciliation Studies,⁷ Coventry Cathedral's schools' team and Coventry Peace House were utilised to give a broader knowledge and skills platform than would have been available had the project been just schools based.

The overall aim of the project was to provide professionals who work with children and young people with training in the areas of peace studies and practical conflict resolution skills such as negotiation and mediation techniques. The intention was then that these adults would cascade this knowledge down to children and young people through organised projects so as to empower them within their schools or community. Children accessing the training through their projects would then be known as 'Peace Partners'.

It was hoped that the children would benefit by gaining confidence in their ability to help themselves and enhance their self-esteem and therefore become more confident when dealing with issues of bullying and harassment. They would learn leadership and communication skills and be able to put in place problem-solving strategies, so becoming role models for other students. It would lead to young people's voices being heard and should develop their participation in school matters.

⁷ The primary Trainers were:

Ms. Balbir Sohal – Advisory Teacher for PSHCE Education, Leading on Citizenship, Equalities, Pupil Voice & Participation Education and Learning Services, Children, Learning and Young People's Directorate, Coventry City Council, Dr Carol Rank – CPRS, Charles Harlock – CPRS – Participant Observer and Trainer

It was also envisaged that the programme would provide benefits in other areas. Because the emphasis was on practical conflict resolution then the problem solving skills learnt by both the adults and young people would be transferable to the family environment. As with all educational processes, it was expected that the proactive conflict resolution skills learnt by both the adults and young people would be carried forward into providing a safer environment in schools and enhancing community cohesion.

The premise was that teachers and youth professionals would find themselves spending less time intervening in disputes among young people thus reducing tensions between staff and young people; the overall effect would be to have an impact on the school improvement agenda and so contribute to an enhanced school environment by improving the overall school climate.

The programme would offer opportunities for the adult trainers to experience a range of effective peace teaching material and resources that they could then use in explicit modelling of participative teaching and learning. They would be able to deliver areas of the training to children and young people, learn leadership and communication skills and acquire problem-solving strategies. They would have the opportunity to explore the use of outside agencies in providing enriched citizenship and personal social experiences for schools and community settings. It was expected that successful completion of the course and projects should leave the participants enabled to make the concept of Peace Partners effective in their work settings and make this area of work self-sustainable.

It was expected that the programme would also provide a means for developing support structures and provide opportunities for those adults taking part to share expertise and examples of good practice in the area.

The programme would also fulfil aspects of the Every Child Matters (ECM)⁸ agenda, with a particular focus on Coventry's 6th outcome - 'Supportive family, friends and community'⁹

9.3 Programme Delivery

The programme was delivered along two strands:

Firstly, SfS would take responsibility for training adult professionals using external input from Coventry University, Coventry Cathedral and Coventry Peace House. As we have seen above, these adults would then run projects in their work places where their training would be passed down to children and young adults.

Secondly, CaFES would undertake direct training of younger children in primary schools that would be also linked to the 'Playground Pals'¹⁰ scheme they were already running. The CaFES trainers were to participate in the Services for Schools training to ensure continuity of philosophy. See figure 16 below:

⁸ Following the launch of a Green Paper *Every Child Matters* in September 2003, there was a wide-ranging public debate about how to deliver improved care and services for children, young people and families. In December 2003, the Government published *Every Child Matters: Next Steps* and passed the *Children Act 2004*. In November 2004, *Every Child Matters: Change for Children* was released, setting out a national framework for local change programmes led by local authorities and their partners. In November 2005, the *Childcare Bill* was introduced to Parliament. The ECM agenda was further developed through publication of the *Children's Plan* in December 2007. The Children's Plan is a ten-year strategy that aims to improve educational outcomes for children, improve children's health, reduce offending rates among young people and eradicate child poverty by 2020.

⁹ Coventry City Council Programmes and Projects Team, Children, Learning and Young People's Directorate (2009) Coventry Children and Young People's Strategic Partnership Data Book 2009. Coventry. Coventry City Council. p.75

¹⁰ Playground Pals is a peer mentoring scheme that trains older (Year 5) primary school children in basic conflict resolution skills that they then use to support younger children, particularly in cases of bullying.

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Figure 16. Peace Partners Programme delivery strands.

This chapter is primarily concerned with the strand of delivery managed by Services SfS and funded by NRF.

9.4 Programme Curriculum and Methodology

Course Content

The ethos of the course was to use a combination of formal teaching with interactive and participatory group sessions. The concept followed was based on the relationship between knowledge, skills and values model developed by Simon Fisher and David Hicks in the World Studies, 8-13 Project¹¹ and later by others such as Kerr et al as part of the development of the Citizenship curriculum.¹²

In addressing the relationship shown above the course content was structured in the following way:

¹¹ Hicks, D. (1988). *Education for Peace: Issues, Principles and Practices in the Classroom*. London. Routledge.

¹² Kerr D, Lopes J, Ireland E, Nelson J with Cleaver E (2006) DfES Research Report RR732: Active Citizenship and Young People: Opportunities, Experiences and Challenges In and Beyond School. Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study: Fourth Annual Report Nottingham. DfES Publications

Knowledge	Skills	Attitudes
Ways of dealing with conflict	Conflict resolution	Empathy
Coventry's peace heritage	Effective listening	Respect for people and cultures
Concepts of prejudice and discrimination	Negotiation and mediation	Tolerance
Ways of dealing with bullying	Decision making	Reflection
Links to the National Curriculum. (SEAL, PSHEE and Citizenship)	Assertiveness	Ownership
Peace work, local and international	Critical thinking	Responsibility
Awareness of rights and responsibilities		
Teaching Resources		

Table 9. Peace Partners content

The underlying ethos was that knowledge should be put into practice so that conflict can be dealt with constructively and that students can bring about positive changes in the school society and beyond that, their wider community.

The programme began by developing a knowledge base that would underpin the rest of the programme and focussed on developing a common terminology that could be understood and used by children and young people. The tutors presented various approaches to peace education and a detailed examination of Coventry's Anti-Bullying programme, its content, and approaches as well as a review of various materials available. This component also examined Coventry's history as a city of peace and reconciliation and the material and facilities in place and readily available within the City. This included input from staff from Coventry Cathedral, Coventry Peace House and The Herbert Art Gallery and Museum.

This was then reinforced by training in various practical skills. These included understanding the processes involved in conflict resolution and transformation as well as recognising the various personal conflict styles and individual assertiveness models. The use of both reflective and active listening skills was then taken forward into seminars on negotiation and mediation techniques.

Running alongside and within these sessions were seminars that reinforced the 'value culture' needed for the more educational based skills to be placed into context. These looked at ways and means of building peaceful societies within schools, making them a safer place to learn, examining how to address the controversial issues that children and young people are regularly exposed to through the media and the various strategies in place for challenging bullying, prejudice and hate crimes.

Table 10 (below) illustrates the format adopted for both learning cohorts and illustrates the efforts made by the course tutors to inter-relate the three concepts of knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Day 1	Day 2
Introduction and context setting Expectations, contract and ground rules Common Terminology Anti-bullying Update Coventry City of Peace and Reconciliation - History, Peace Trail, Peace Month Introduction to Coventry Cathedral Schools Section Anti-bullying materials & approaches	Conflict Resolution Skills and Conflict styles Assertiveness Types Listening Skills and Reflective Listening Negotiation Mediation Complementary Strategies - Hate Crime/Sexuality Challenging racism and prejudice
Day 3	Day 4
Opportunities within Youth settings for peace projects etc. Making School a Safer Place for Learning Input from young people from President Kennedy School - anti-bullying work Building a Culture of Peace, locally and globally The Herbert Art Gallery and Museum - Peace and Reconciliation Gallery Approaches to Peace Education The use of literature to explore issues. Using Art to explore peace and conflict What makes a peaceful society? Building a Culture of Peace, locally and globally. Taking Action for Peace. Project Possibilities, planning projects in draft	Introduction to Peace Partners Core Module & supplementary activities Poster presentation on participants projects and timescales Visit to and tour of Coventry Cathedral

Table 10: Peace Partners Teaching Programme

Each day closed with a group review of the day's contents and then the participants were set 'homework' that was used as both an icebreaker and introduction to the next days' content.

The final (fifth day) was devoted to the presentation of individual project content and timescales to the group and ended with a final course review and evaluation.

9.5 Content delivery methods

All training, apart from the visits to Coventry Cathedral and the Peace and Reconciliation gallery at the Herbert Art Gallery and Museum took place at Coventry University.

From the outset it was envisaged that The Peace Partners learning process would be one using Active Learning techniques (sometimes referred to as student centred learning) where teachers encourage children to engage in activities that encourage them to think about and comment on the information presented. This involves more than just a simple listening process as it develops skills in handling the different ideas and concepts being presented to them. It looks to help children analyse and evaluate information by interaction with the other children in their group. By asking questions, debating and discussing the subject matter they will learn how to combine these different ideas and influences into a new whole. In an active learning environment children will be engaged in activities that force them to reflect upon ideas and upon how they are using those ideas and by encouraging them to be more interactive with the subject matter they are encouraged to generate rather than receive knowledge.

Research has shown that active learning is an effective teaching technique.¹³ Regardless of the subject matter, when active learning is compared to traditional teaching methods then students learn more material, retain the information longer and enjoy the class more.

¹³ Lea, S. J., Stephenson D., and Troy J. (2003). Higher Education Students' Attitudes to Student Centred Learning: Beyond 'educational bulimia'. *Studies in Higher Education* 28(3), 321-334.

However just introducing 'activity' into a learning environment is not sufficient on its own as it fails to capture an important element of active learning, that of the children learning how to work together rather than under the direct instruction of an adult. To maximise the value of active learning we need to introduce other learning processes such as 'collaborative', 'co-operative' and 'problem solving' learning.

Cooperative learning originates mainly from the philosophical writings of John Dewey who stresses the social nature of learning and also from Kurt Lewin's work on group dynamics¹⁴. Collaborative learning has British roots, largely from the work of teachers of English literature exploring ways to help students respond to literature by taking a more active role in their own learning. Cooperative learning tends towards a quantitative method looking for a product of learning whilst the collaborative approach uses more qualitative methods, analysing student work in response to a piece of literature or a primary source in history for example. However both share the common base in that they use team processes where the team members support and rely on each other to achieve an agreed-upon goal. In practice the boundaries between the two methods tend to blur.

One way of achieving this is by using a problem solving (or 'problem based' as it is often known) approach which presents students with challenges about their own resourcefulness, personal organisation, critical abilities and capacity to think.

Atherton describes how problem based learning takes students across subject boundaries and makes them link information from different disciplines:¹⁵

'Problem-based learning begins to come into its own when it involves finding out additional information to solve the problem (or case), with a greater or lesser degree of guidance. You not only have to work out what you need to know in order to solve the problem, you have to research it, and to apply your findings to the issue.'

Johnson and Johnson have researched and written widely on these methodologies¹⁶ and conclude that cooperative learning generally promotes greater interpersonal

¹⁴ Lewin, K. (1948) Resolving Social Conflicts: Selected papers on group dynamics. New York: Harper and Row.

¹⁵ Atherton J S (2011) Teaching and Learning; Problem-based Learning [On-line: UK] retrieved 11 January 2011 from <http://www.learningandteaching.info/teaching/pbl.htm>

attraction among individuals than competitive or individualistic efforts and that it also tends to promote greater social support than does competitive or individualistic efforts.¹⁷

They go on to say:¹⁸

“These outcomes tend to result only when cooperation is effectively structured to contain five basic elements First, there must be a strong sense of *positive interdependence*, so individuals believe they are linked with others so they cannot succeed unless the others do (and vice versa). Positive interdependence may be structured through mutual goals, joint rewards, divided resources, complementary roles, and a shared identity. Second, each collaborator must be *individually accountable* to do his or her fair share of the work. Third, collaborators must have the opportunity to *promote each other’s success* by helping, assisting, supporting, encouraging, and praising each other’s efforts to achieve. Fourth, working together cooperatively requires *interpersonal and small group skills*, such as leadership, decision making, trust building, communication, and conflict management skills. Finally, *cooperative groups* must engage in group processing, which exists when group members discuss how well they are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships.”

It is a small step to see from this that using active learning techniques in the classroom can pose difficulties for teachers and children that are not used to this style of learning. The teacher surrenders some of the control of the class as they become more a facilitator than an instructor and the children have to accept increased responsibility not only for what but also how they learn. In order to illustrate this Peace Partners course tutors used a variety of active learning techniques to demonstrate the effectiveness of the active learning methodology. They adopted a mixed delivery style interposing formal seminars, group discussions, visiting specialists and individual presentations. Real life role-plays were used to reinforce some of the more specialist areas such as negotiation and mediation techniques. Emphasis was placed on using resources with the adult learners that could be later used when working with children and young people.

¹⁶ See for example the References section of ‘Peace Education in the Classroom: Creating Effective Peace Education Programs’ in Salomon, G. and Cairns, E (Eds.) Handbook on Peace Education Psychology Press; New York, which refers to over 20 books and articles they have authored in this area.

¹⁷ Johnson, W J and Johnson, R.T. ‘Peace Education in the Classroom: Creating Effective Peace Education Programs’ in Salomon, G. and Cairns, E (Eds.) Handbook on Peace Education Psychology Press; New York. p.229

¹⁸ Ibid. p.229

Amongst those active learning techniques used by The Peace Partners tutors were:

Brainstorming: This is a method of creating lists of ideas that can then be ranked or sorted accordingly and it is generally undertaken in groups. It should generate a large number of ideas where the ideas of one person can stimulate the ideas of the others in the team. The process encourages discussion, allowing everyone the opportunity to contribute and avoids individuals views becoming 'lost' in the discussion. The process of sorting and expanding ideas also helps to promote teamwork and develop listening and negotiation skills. Because the process does not restrict the contributions to fitting under fixed headings it allows participants to think more laterally than more structured meeting formats and often ideas that at first glance appear to be 'off the wall' can become the key to resolving the dilemma.

Group Work: Working in small groups or pairs gives students the opportunity to talk and participate much more effectively by allowing them the space to exchange thoughts and ideas and to show their individual creativity. Whilst it is unlikely that the Peace Partners project would run as a whole-class activity it may well be adopted to just that and so while there are many ways of using groups the Peace Partners programme primarily looks at two main options:

- a. Use the group to promote interaction within the class as a whole.
- b. Using small groups for extended project work.

Role-playing: Role-play is one technique that has the potential to generate excitement and engagement as children explore the issues presented to them. Role play is an extremely powerful learning technique for developing interpersonal skills as it gives children a chance to experiment with different approaches in a safe environment. Not only does this lead to effective learning, but the possibility of being able to take these skills outside of the classroom is very high because the situations explored in a role-play can be psychologically close to real life.

Games: Using games that are related to the subject is something that can be easily incorporated into the classroom to foster active learning and participation. Games can include matching, mysteries, group competitions, solving puzzles, etc.

Debates: Staging debates in class can be an effective tool for encouraging children to think about more than one point of view of an issue. They also help to develop effective listening skills as well as promoting the discipline required to allow others to have their say without interruption.

Case studies: Using real-life stories that describe what happened to a community, family, school, or individual helps to prompt children to integrate their classroom knowledge with their knowledge of real-world situations, actions, and consequences.

Learning journals: During the training programme teachers were encouraged to keep 'learning journals', a process that children taking part in projects should also maintain. A learning journal is a collection of notes, observations, thoughts and other relevant materials built-up over the period of the project and is used to extend and enhance the structured learning through the process of writing and thinking about the child's learning experiences. The learning journal is personal to the individual and will reflect their personality and unique experiences during the course of the project. Normally journals take the form of notebooks but there is no reason why they should not be an electronic document or even recorded verbally on tape or as a video diary using a webcam. The medium is less important than the child's ability to relate to their experiences and be comfortable in the manner in which they document them.

Reflections: Each day began with a short period of reflection on the previous day. This was a group session when individuals commented on aspects of the previous day that had caused them thought and in many cases was a verbalisation of some of the content of their learning journal that was more related to personal experience rather than the course content.

Presentations: Presentations are an effective technique to use both during and particularly at the end of a project and can be done by either individuals or groups. This is an opportunity for the children involved in the projects to bring together and

summarize their learning over the project period and to display their work in a public arena and use it to illustrate how their classroom learning can connect with their project knowledge base. They can use a variety of mediums including video production, art/photographic work, a slide show, a bulletin board, PowerPoint slideshow, construct a Web page, or a public presentation such as a year or school assembly to share what they have learnt and achieved.

9.6 Programme Outputs

The primary aim of the Peace Partners programme was to provide educational professionals with a practical knowledge of peace studies and conflict resolution skills in such a way that they would be able to use these tools to train young people so that they could then become the specialists in these areas within their school or group.

An analysis of the Quarterly Service Monitoring (QSM)¹⁹ forms supplied to the writer showed that: 35 adults completed the training programme and 541 children and young people took part in projects based on the programme content and run by the adult trainers as shown in Table 11.

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Table 11. QSM Analysis

¹⁹ These are part of the Coventry City Council internal reporting and audit process compiled by the Project manager from returns submitted by the adult trainers.

From the returns received projects were run in 22 city-wide placements of which 19 were either Primary or Secondary schools that represented only 18% of the total number of schools in the LEA²⁰. There was an overwhelming predisposition toward female adults (83%) and white British ethnicity (92%) in this population.

Encouragingly amongst the children and young people involved in the projects there was a fairly even balance between the sexes (46% male/54 % female), while age analysis showed that those taking part in years 7 – 9 represented over 2.5% of total Coventry schools population for that age group.²¹ (Table 12)

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Table 12. Children and young people by age/gender

²⁰ Coventry Children's Services Information Team: *Children's Services Key Statistics 2005/2006*. www.coventry.gov.uk Although this may appear to be a 'small' figure it is unusually high for such a low budget project.

²¹ Ibid

Further, an analysis of ethnicity (table 13) also showed a very close correlation to the overall schools population.²²

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Table 13 Analysis of children's ethnicity

(Note: On some returns Age/Gender/Ethnicity sections were not completed hence the analysis totals of only 435 children rather than total trained of 541.)

A major output of the programme was the wide variety and high quality of the projects that ran under the aegis of the programme. These included those shown in table 14 below:

Project	Year/Age group
PeaceJam extension project	8 – 10
“What is Peace?” - exploring peace and conflict then sharing with school assemblies and tutor groups.	7
Peer mentoring project managing the transition from Junior to Senior school.	6/7/8
Making a Peace garden – including a book of pupils poetry	8/9
Harmony Project – difference, diversity and community.	9
Peer support group – anti-bullying initiative.	9/10
Anti-bullying initiative to create anti-bullying policy by young people.	7/8
Co-ordinating with ICE FM media training programme to produce radio programmes focussed on bullying and prejudice.	Ages 11 -19. Out of school community project
Using history to generate discussions and visits around conflict issues.	Ages 11 – 19. Out of school community project
Develop peace curriculum for delivery in schools.	6 – 8

²² Ibid

Working with identified bullies and developing issues of respect and empathy for others.	8/9/10
Peer mentoring/Buddy programme.	7/8
Peace Partners curriculum to establish peer mentoring programme	8
Community Forum Football Tournament with Coventry City Football Club and West Midlands Police (Coventry).	14 – 18 years. Out of school community project
Project in partnership with Connections working with a group of unaccompanied minors aged 16 – 19 on Thursdays and Fridays	16 – 19 years. Out of School community project

Table 14. School Projects

The programme has also produced the 'The Peace Partners Training Manual'²³ that collects all of the teaching materials used in the programme and presents it so that it is accessible to both adults and students. The manual also contains an interactive Compact Disc with the presentations used by the trainers in a standard format.

9.7 Conclusion.

In assessing the effectiveness or otherwise of the Peace Partners programme I intend to look at two measures.

The first of these is to look at whether or not the programme met the criteria for including it in this research. Earlier in this chapter I stated that this case study is used both to illustrate the various tools that are typically employed in teaching peace education in English secondary schools and how the content can be linked to SEAL, PSHEE and Citizenship teaching, so the question is:

Is the programme typical of other peace education programmes that look to provide adult educators working in secondary schools with the skills needed to introduce peace education in their school?

The second measure is to examine how well the programme met the original aims of providing a core group of secondary school teachers and other youth workers with the

²³ Harlock, C. (2010): Peace Partners Training Manual. Coventry City Council. Coventry.

practical skills and knowledge needed to run effective peace projects with young people.

Measure 1

To answer the first question we need to determine whether or not there are other organisations running similar programmes and if so what is their content and what teaching methods do they use? We need to bear in mind that we are measuring against other adult training programmes rather than training programmes that are working directly with children and young people so we are looking for training that is developing teachers' skills beyond their normal subject based training.²⁴

Three national organisations that are actively involved in teaching in schools are: Amnesty International, Oxfam and the Citizenship Foundation. These are widely respected Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and all run Continuing Professional Development (CPD) Training in peace education related areas for teachers and other adults working with young children.

Amnesty International UK

Amnesty International (AI) is quite clear about its intentions:

‘OUR WORK... We are a campaigning organisation; it's what we do. Our purpose is to protect people wherever justice, fairness, freedom and truth are denied.’²⁵

As such it is primarily working in the Human Rights arena and it is not surprising therefore that it concentrates its teaching content in this area. AI provides CPD training in Human Rights issues for teachers working from KS2 – KS5 across the curriculum and its website contains a considerable amount of free resource material for use in schools and other youth environments. They say:

²⁴ There are many organisations, such as the institutional members of the Peace Education Network that work directly with children in schools but do not undertake teacher training and for that reason alone they have not been included in this analysis.

²⁵ <http://amnesty.org.uk/content.asp?CategoryID=10010>

‘At Amnesty we believe human rights education is about learning and developing:

Knowledge and understanding about human rights
 Attitudes and behaviour respectful of human rights
 Skills to uphold and protect human rights’

Oxfam²⁶

Oxfam concentrates on three interlinked areas of work:²⁷

- Disaster Relief - delivering aid, support and protection and assisting communities to develop the capacity to cope with future crises.
- Development work - funding long-term work to fight poverty in communities worldwide and helping poor people to take control, solve their own problems, and rely on themselves.
- Campaigning for change - campaigns by putting pressure on leaders for real lasting change.

In its educational programme Oxfam concentrates on education for Global Citizenship that looks to help children understand their world and how they can make a positive difference in it. They provide a wide range of resources in many curriculum areas with the largest being in Citizenship/PSHE that include Bullying, Children’s Rights, and Understanding World Conflicts. For teachers they include resources on how to work with controversial issues, understanding world conflict and communities working together.

Its programme rationale is shown in the diagram below: ²⁸

²⁶ <http://www.oxfam.org.uk/>

²⁷ http://www.oxfam.org.uk/oxfam_in_action/what_we_do/index.html

²⁸ Oxfam Development Education Programme (2006) Global Citizenship Guides: Teaching Controversial Issues. Oxford. Oxfam Development Education

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Figure 17. Key elements of Global citizenship

‘Young people need to develop skills that allow them to come to their own views about, and discuss, these types of hugely important issues. Having a chance to engage with controversial issues in a constructive environment will help young people to develop as global citizens, and teachers have a key role to play in enabling this development.’²⁹

The Citizenship Foundation

Founded in 1989 The Citizenship Foundation is an independent education and ‘participation charity’³⁰ that looks to encourage and enable individuals to engage in a democratic society. Their work focuses on developing young people’s citizenship skills, knowledge and understanding of the law, democracy and public life.

Their work involves:

- championing civic participation;
- supporting teachers, schools and colleges in the delivery of citizenship education;
- working with young people in community-settings on issues that concern them.

They set out their vision as being:³¹

‘We want a fair, inclusive and cohesive society. We want a democracy in which people have the knowledge, skills, and confidence to take part and drive change as effective citizens, both as individuals and as communities.’

²⁹ <http://www.oxfam.org.uk/education/teachersupport/cpd/controversial/>

³⁰ www.citizenshipfoundation.org.uk

³¹ <http://www.citizenshipfoundation.org.uk/main/page.php?6>

They offer a wide range of web-based and on-site CPD training for Citizenship teachers and co-ordinators as well as Local Authority Advisors.

Their methods for teaching Citizenship education include a wide range of different elements of learning:³²

- Knowledge and understanding: About topics such as: laws and rules, the democratic process, the media, human rights, diversity, money and the economy, sustainable development and world as a global community; and about concepts such as democracy, justice, equality, freedom, authority and the rule of law;
- Skills and aptitudes: Critical thinking, analysing information, expressing opinions, taking part in discussions and debates, negotiating, conflict resolution and participating in community action;
- Values and dispositions: Respect for justice, democracy and the rule of law, openness, tolerance, courage to defend a point of view and a willingness to listen to, work with and stand up for others.

They go on to say that in their opinion:

‘The most effective form of learning in citizenship education is:

- active: emphasises learning by doing;
- interactive: uses discussion and debate;
- relevant: focuses on real-life issues facing young people and society;
- critical: encourages young people to think for themselves;
- collaborative: employs group work and co-operative learning;
- participative: gives young people a say in their own learning.’

Although none of these organisations refer to their educational programmes as being ‘peace education’, (in fact as far as I can see none of them actually use this term on their websites), it is clear that their respective programme content goes a long way to meet the definition of peace education offered by Reardon:

‘the attempt to promote the development of an authentic planetary consciousness that will enable us to function as global citizens and to transform

³² <http://www.citizenshipfoundation.org.uk/main/page.php?286>

the present human condition by changing the social structures and patterns of thought that have created it.’³³

They all make extensive use of both the active learning techniques discussed earlier in this chapter and the concept of Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes developed by Hicks³⁴ also discussed earlier in this chapter. All three organisations include material that examines the nature of conflict and methods for resolving it and they all look beyond schools to the wider community, both local and global.

To that extent then I feel it is fair to say that, by comparison with the above, the Peace Partners programme satisfied Measure 1.

Measure 2: How well did it meet the original aims of the programme?

We have already seen in the Programme Outputs section above that the programme failed to attract the required number of adults (35 against a target of 60) but was more than successful in the number of young people trained (541 against a target of 400).

The shortfall in adults completing the programme was surprising. The programme was extensively advertised and promoted within Coventry schools as part of the City’s Anti-bullying programme and there was strong support from the LA’s Anti-Bullying Manager. What became apparent was the lack of commitment from senior staff within schools to release teachers for off-site training and the conflicting demands on schools. This was in spite of both the financial incentives provided (up to £400 funding for each school project) and the very real benefits that could be gained from the reduction of bullying incidents.

Secondly there was evidence of both competition and a conflict of understanding between SfS and CaFES over the nature of the route a young person would take to become a Peace Partner indicating a lack of detailed planning and clarity at the onset of the project. While this did not directly affect either route providing effective training

³³ Reardon, B.A. (1988). *Comprehensive Peace Education: Educating for Global Responsibility*. New York: Teachers College Press.

³⁴ Hicks, D. (1988). p. 13

for the adults and young people, it was a distraction that wasted time and resources in reaching a solution.³⁵

In 2008 an external evaluation of the LA's Anti-bullying Strategy carried out by Nationwide Children's Research Centre (NCRC)³⁶ specifically looked at the programme interviewing adults and children involved. Data for the evaluation about Peace Partners was obtained from interviews with staff leading on this topic at two Schools, 'A' (a medium sized Secondary School) and 'B' (a large Secondary School)³⁷; and from a meeting with nine Year 8 students involved in the initiative at School 'B'.

The following information is extracted from their report:

"The Learning Support Teacher (LST) at School 'A' had received very positive support (and a small budget) from the school to involve students in the first PeaceJam³⁸ Conference in Bradford. The LST took a number of Year 8 girls, including three who had been excluded for violence and who were permanently in trouble, to the Bradford Conference. The LST described the impact on the pupils as "electric". The children met Peace Laureates including Mairead Corrigan-Maguire, a Nobel Peace prize-winner. The experience changed their behaviour and helped to change the ethos in the school."

"At School 'B' the Head of Year 8 had taken responsibility for training Peace Partners in her year group. Training had focused on helping to deal with conflict situations, respecting confidentiality, and ensuring that serious issues were reported to adults. Five of the group had been to Bradford to attend PeaceJam."

"The evaluators met with nine Year 8 students involved in the Peace Partners Initiative at School B (May 2007). The group comprised seven girls and two boys, and the Head of Year 8 was also present. Peace Partners at School 'B' were part of the mainstream response to tackling bullying in the school."

Some comments from the Peace Partners included in the evaluation were:

³⁵ Harlock, C. (2008). Peace Partners: Neighbourhood Renewal Fund Project Evaluation. Coventry.

³⁶ Holmes, G and Manby M (2008) Coventry NRF Anti-Bullying Strategy Evaluation Report. Huddersfield. NCRC

³⁷ The evaluators do not define what is meant by 'medium' or 'large' although from their background information I do know that school B has a pupil population of approximately 1200 children.

³⁸ The PeaceJam programme was launched in February 1996 by Dawn Engle and Ivan Suvanjiëff to provide the Nobel Peace Prize Laureates with a platform to use in working together to teach young people the art of peace. PeaceJam UK is part of that programme and runs an annual weekend conference in March each year for young people, teachers and youth workers. The event takes place at Bradford University and is run by the University's Centre for Peace Studies. <http://www.bradford.ac.uk/peace/NewsandEvents/PeaceJam/>

- 'A Peace Partner is like somebody you trust, and you can go to when you're feeling a bit down...Peace Partners...will tell you whether you need...to tell other people your feelings (for example the Head), or keep it to yourself.'
- 'Peace Partners try...to stop ...conflict getting too big and too serious. It's likely to stop it getting from a silly argument to being a full-scale fight out of school, or in school.'
- 'Peace Partners...reason with both sides so that both sides are sort of right, but with reasoning in the middle, and getting them back together again so they're friends.'

The evaluators commented that Peace Partners was generally seen as a very positive initiative. Adults commended the training involved and interviews with the LA Anti-Bullying Steering Group members referred in positive terms to the quality of training provided through the programme, including high quality contributions by Coventry University. They saw the potential for qualified adults and young people to contribute to conflict resolution and mediation when problems were identified in local communities.

We have already seen that further evidence of positive success comes from the wide variety of projects undertaken by the trained children together with the production of the training manual.

Taking all of these into account it would be fair to assume therefore that the Peace Partners Programme met its main aims and therefore satisfied measure 2.

There is a body of evidence that indicates that student based peer mediation programmes are effective in reducing conflicts and tensions within schools. For example Johnson and Johnson³⁹ concluded that:

- Conflict resolution and peer mediation programs do seem to be effective in teaching students integrative negotiation and mediation procedures;
- after training, students tend to use these conflict strategies, which generally leads to constructive outcomes; and

³⁹ Johnson D. W. and Johnson R. T. (1996): Conflict Resolution and Peer Mediation Programs in Elementary and Secondary Schools: A Review of the Research. Review of Educational Research. Vol. 66, No. 4, pp. 459-506

- students' success in resolving their conflicts constructively tends to result in reducing the numbers of student-student conflicts referred to teachers and administrators, which, in turn, tends to reduce suspension.

However there is one caveat to the positive outputs above. In September 2010 I made informal contact with eighteen of the thirty five adults who took part in the training sessions. Of these only two were still involved in any aspects that could be related to peer mediation in their schools, eight had moved to schools outside of Coventry and the remainder were either still in post or had moved into management posts within their schools however none were involved in any form of peer-mediation, conflict resolution programmes within their schools. The general consensus was that the Peace Partners programme worked while there was funding available to cover for their training sessions and the projects that ran within the schools. Once the funding ceased so did the programme.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

When I began this research project in 2007 I was conscious that I had no background in or knowledge of the subject content of peace education other than the relatively small amount I had gathered when undertaking a Master's Degree in Peace and Reconciliation Studies at the Centre for Peace and Reconciliation Studies, Coventry University.

However, having long held the view that education is a powerful tool for social change I became interested in discovering more about the role that peace education could play in educating our children about their future responsibilities.

I was also aware that those involved in peace education and peace studies were under the impression that peace education in secondary schools in this country had to all intents and purposes disappeared from the educational system, practiced only by a dwindling number of peace activists and that the teachers of the 1970s and 1980s who were "like meteors across a dark sky radiating enthusiasm for peace education"¹ had burnt out.

This position appeared to be reinforced by the journal article 'Give Peace A Chance: The Diminution of Peace in Global Education in the United States, United Kingdom, and Canada'.² This was a study of the available literature on peace and global education in secondary schools and "included secondary studies from professional and peer-reviewed periodicals, articles in published collections, monographs, and textbooks."³

¹ Harris, I. A.: Peace Education Commission News Letter. International Peace Research Association. July 2007. Oslo. pp. 6-7

² Cook, S., A. (2008): Give Peace a Chance: The Diminution of Peace in Global Education in the United States, United Kingdom, and Canada. Canadian Journal of Education Vol. 31, No. 4 pp. 889-913

³ Ibid. p. 889

The article very closely aligns peace education with global education, the term used widely in the USA, by using the definition of peace education given by Harris and Morrison:

“Peace education is currently considered to be both a philosophy and a process involving skills, including listening, reflection, problem-solving, cooperation and conflict resolution. The process involves empowering with the skills, attitudes and knowledge to create a safe world and build a sustainable environment. The philosophy teaches nonviolence, love, compassion and reverence for all life. Peace education confronts indirectly the forms of violence that dominate society by teaching about its causes and providing knowledge of alternatives. This definition of peace education by one of the field’s leading author teams provides evidence of the close alignment of principles behind peace and global education, as it is termed in North America.”⁴

On the other hand the article goes on to firmly place peace education as a sub-set of global education:

“On the other hand, global education, the larger framework into which peace education is now commonly inserted,...”⁵

A position that became more confusing when it became obvious that the article did not attempt to define global education.

When it came to the analysis of the position of global/peace education in Britain its main discourse centres around the World Studies 8-13 Project and cites Holden:

“By the mid-1980s, over half the teachers in England and Wales were actively involved in world studies and many more used parts of the curricula and pedagogical approaches to supplement other curricula (Holden, 2000, p. 76). This included peace studies.”⁶

There are two problems with this statement the first of which is that Holden actually said:

“At one point in the early 1980s, over half the **education authorities*** in the UK were promoting world studies”⁷ (p.76)

*My emphasis

⁴ Ibid p. 890

⁵ Ibid p. 890

⁶ Ibid. p.890

⁷ Holden, C. (2000): Learning for Democracy: From World Studies to Global Citizenship. Theory into Practice. Volume 39, Number 2, Spring 2000 pp 74 -80

Half the education authorities did not equate to half of the secondary teachers at that time as many of the local authorities taking part in the project were smaller ones.

The second problem is that nowhere does Holden suggest that this includes peace studies.

This apparent confusion over the aims and content of peace education was my first introduction to the possibility that there were other contended areas of 'peace education' of which I knew nothing provided further impetus for this research project.

10.2 The Research Questions

What is true is that the term 'peace education' is no longer in widespread use in our formal educational structure but did that mean that the aims and objectives that fuelled the fire of those meteors had dissipated into nothingness?

In order to address this perception this thesis has traced the evolution and development of peace education in English secondary schools from 1900 to 2010. It has examined the roles played by organisations inside and outside of the formal education structure and placed them in context with changes in education practice and policy. It has considered the role played by governments of all political hues in moving from an educational system effectively in the hands of Local Authorities, teachers and educational administrators to one state controlled and driven by market orientated policies culminating in the imposition of a National Curriculum that at first hindered and then assisted the teaching of peace education in this country's secondary schools.

In the introduction to this thesis I posed three research questions the first of which was:

"How did the major changes in educational theory and practice assist the growth of peace education in English secondary schools after the Second World War?"

In the thesis I have described how, from the turn of the 20th Century, educational thinking was changing from one focussed on what was described as the 'talk and chalk' method of teaching to one that placed the needs of the child first and foremost or 'child-centred' learning.

The first method had been the traditional method of teaching for centuries and was where the teacher imparted knowledge and the student was a sponge, absorbing and later regurgitating this knowledge in examination scripts. The second recognised that the student needed to do more than just assimilate the teacher's knowledge but should be able to take it further and develop a new, more personal understanding of the subject. It also means that there was the need for a new method of teaching that would allow the student to absorb and process the initial information before they can apply it to the world around them. There is also the implied supposition that the student needs to gather further information and data from other sources, putting them together with their own thoughts and expanding the initial knowledge into a new, expanded data set.

The early pioneers in this area maintained that children should be encouraged to reason their way through a problem or situation **in** order to form their own conclusions and not just rely on the knowledge of their teacher. They emphasised the importance of children being able to develop their own ideas and that they should be encouraged to come to as much understanding of the world around them as was possible at that particular stage in their education. This meant that instead of depending just upon other people's ideas they would draw their own conclusions from their own life experiences.

This concept was then taken up and developed further by the New Education movement in the early 20th Century. Led by a small group of progressive educationalists and free-thinkers who formed the New Education Fellowship (NEF) the concept of child-centred learning made major advances and soon became one of the mainstream educational beliefs of the time.

In England they were successful in transforming educational practice, particularly in the early years and primary sectors. The child-centred reforms they promoted were widely accepted by teachers and educational planners at all levels.

Underpinning all of NEF's work there was the belief that education was a key tool for social change and so could also be an important factor in the drive for world peace by producing involved citizens that were aware of the wider world and their role within it.

In England their approach was endorsed by The Norwood Report⁸ which was to pave the way for a radical overhaul in English secondary education:

“The Report brings us back to the child as the centre of all education and the school as a spiritual community of particular children. At every stage from the nursery to national service there is opened up a limitless opportunity of supplying the nurture suited for individual growth. But this entails greater responsibility and greater freedom in the teaching profession...it relates education to life without sacrificing children to the values of the market-place.”⁹

The 1944 Education Act totally reformed English secondary education by imposing free education on all children up to the age of 14 years which was later increased to 15 years. It presaged the introduction of comprehensive education and put the content of the curriculum and the teaching methods used, firmly in the hands of teachers.

Their efforts were given impetus by the work of Brazilian educationalist Paulo Freire who with two books ‘Education as the Practice of Freedom’ (1967) and more famously ‘The Pedagogy of the Oppressed’ (1968) brought forward thinking that education was often used as a tool of oppression, in that it was used by the establishment as a means of maintaining the status quo. By teaching the student the rhetoric and thoughts of the establishment and suppressing the possibility of the student to form their own opinions and so become tools for change, the elite maintained control over the proletariat.

⁸ Board of Education (1943): ‘Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools’, Report of the Committee of the Secondary School Examinations Council. London. HMSO.

⁹ <http://archive.spectator.co.uk/article/30th-july-1943/6/the-norwood-report>

Freire's work updated the thinking of the early New Educationalists and placed them in context with educational thinking of the times. His work encouraged the student to think critically about the issues and topics under discussion and promoted the use of discussion and argument as tools to assist in the process and was widely accepted by educationalists.

It is hardly surprising then that those interested in teaching the controversial issues embedded in peace education would use the freedom of setting curriculum content together with the new teaching methods of group work and discussion, as important tools to drive the teaching of peace education forward which they did with great success.

The second research question set was:

'What were the factors that saw the 1970s – 1980s being described as the 'golden years' of peace education in English secondary schools?'

The 1970s and 1980s saw the emergence of peace education in English secondary schools as an important part of the secondary education praxis.

The conference at Keele University in 1974 organised by The World Council for Curriculum and Instruction (WCCI) provided a platform for practitioners to hear at first hand internationally renowned educationalists expounding on their thinking and the ways in which it could be put into practice. With Adam Curle, Johan Galtung and Paulo Freire the main speakers taking part in a three-way dialogue in which the audience was allowed to participate and others such as David Ingram, the Deputy Director of the SCCE Moral Education 8-13 project and Betty Reardon, Director of the School Programme of the Institute for World Order, it was hardly surprising that the conference was attended by over two hundred people from five continents representing teachers, administrators and researchers. The conference was not just a talking shop as a considerable amount of time was spent in action groups looking at the many aspects of peace education and the ways in which it could be improved and

advanced. The delegates analysed the meaning of peace education, why it was needed and how best should it be done in all school ages.

The momentum was also driven by the appearance of a group of organisations that would provide training, resources and perhaps more importantly, a network of likeminded people within which they could exchange ideas and best practice

Two of the major organisations were CEWC and the One World Trust both of which were promoting the idea of world citizenship but in different ways.

As we saw in Chapter 5 CEWC was closely linked to the League of Nations Union and later the United Nations Association in the UK. They provided a variety of resources and opportunities for teachers and pupils to engage in peace education. With regular newsletters, school visits and conferences, including the annual Christmas conference they introduced many thousands of young people to the controversial issues that were the cornerstones of peace education.

Similarly the World Studies Project (detailed in Chapter 6) organised by The One World Trust (OWT), provided resources for teachers and students. The project concentrated more on working with teachers through the use of in-service training courses than directly with students. Output from the courses was then used to produce manuals for teachers on the content and best teaching methods for world studies as well as a series of booklets that could be used by the students. This project was followed by the World Studies 8-13 Project that ran for six years in the 1980s. The project again focussed on providing teachers with high quality manuals and lesson plans for teaching the elements of peace education albeit under the name of World Studies.

All three projects espoused the teaching practices of the New Education movement of group discussion and debate as a prime teaching method and used the critical thinking strategy advanced by Freire as a way of advancing students' knowledge and understanding of the world.

Both CEWC and OWT were working outside of the formal education structure but there was, as we saw in Chapter 6 the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examination (SCCE) working on the inside. The work of the SCCE was not just concerned with developing the curriculum but also in the methods used for in the first case transferring knowledge from the teacher to the student and then by using child-centred teaching methods allowing the student the freedom to build on that knowledge base. They developed a series of pioneering projects in Humanities, Moral Education, Integrated Studies and Multicultural Education that promoted the use of methods of debate, discussion and group work within the classroom. These projects did considerable work in analysing the role of the teacher in the discussion groups, should the teacher be able to express their own personal view point or should they be expected to remain 'neutral'?

The period also saw the advent of teacher networks that concentrated on the transmission of peace education ideas and practice. Teacher for Peace had its roots in the Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament and though its prime focus was nuclear disarmament it also provided extensive resources for peace education for teachers. Its regular newsletters provided background material and also details of conferences and training courses that had taken place and were upcoming. The Peace Education Network was formed at the Atlantic College Conference 'Issues in Peace Education' in 1981 and was closely linked to the World Studies 8-18 Project. In a similar manner to Teachers for Peace it produced a regular newsletter and several successful annual conferences.

It is not surprising then that, with this abundance of resources, with the opportunities to meet regularly and exchange experiences and good practice and with the tacit approval of the educational establishment through the work of the SCCE and some Local Authorities to promote peace education in their schools that this period of 1970s-1980s is described as the 'golden years' of peace education in English secondary schools.

The third and final question, in two parts, was:

‘What were the effects of the New Right educational philosophy on peace education in English secondary schools and did peace education succumb to the pressure or did it re-emerge in a different guise?’

The 1944 Education Act had established the principle that a democratic society should provide all of its children with the best possible education and that this should be free and not dependent on the parents’ income.

This principle was accepted by all of the major political parties in the UK and there was gradual but increasing movement towards comprehensive education. In these schools the intake was not selected by either aptitude or success in earlier examinations. The comprehensives tended to have a wider ranging curriculum than their grammar school counterparts as they taught not only the standard curriculum subjects but also vocational ones such as Design and Technology, Engineering and Woodwork, ensuring that less academically gifted students left school with at least some practical preparation for the world of work.

Towards the end of the 1960s however this cross-party accord began to breakdown as the right wing of the Conservative Party, or ‘New Right’ as they preferred to be known, began a series of attacks on what they saw as the lowering of standards brought about by a period of left wing revolution that destroyed long held educational traditions.

The first open attack came in a series of five ‘Black Papers’ published between 1969 and 1977 although the first two, published in 1969, titled ‘Fight for Education’ and ‘The Crisis in Education’ were generally accepted to be the most effective. The papers were written by an influential mixed group of academics, politicians and writers all holding right of centre political views. The initial group included individuals such as Kingsley Amis, Charles Cox, Angus Maude and A E (Tony) Dyson and the public prominence ensured that their views were given a high profile in the press and media. Later the group was joined by Rhodes Boyson who was to be appointed Under-Secretary for Education after the General Election of 1979.

The 1970 election saw the return to power of a Conservative government with Margaret Thatcher as Education Secretary. When her first major act was to remove the requirement for all LEAs to go comprehensive it would appear that the end of the libertarian education policy was in sight. That proved not to be the case and in the medium term the number of comprehensive schools continued to increase. 1976 saw the return of a Labour controlled government and for a while the pressure for reform was eased, only to return in 1979 with the return to power of the Conservatives and was to continue with increased vigour through the 1980s

During this period, as we have seen above, the place of peace education in English secondary schools continued to advance and even the uninformed and personal attacks led by Caroline Cox, Roger Scruton and Rhodes Boyson, all well reported in the media at the time, appeared to fail to halt its progress.

Under Margaret Thatcher successive Conservative governments espoused and advanced the promotion of market-led forces and free enterprise policies in all areas of society and they did not exclude education. The 1988 Education Reform Act put into place many of the principles called for by the New Right including removing the right of local authorities to set their own curriculum and replacing it with a highly structured National Curriculum, the introduction of regular testing of students and league tables of school results, regular school inspections again with the results being made public, the local management of schools where schools would take control of their budgets and the introduction of grant maintained schools that gave schools the opportunity to 'opt out' of Local Authority control altogether.

The overall effect of this was to remove the freedom of Local Authorities to manage their schools and curriculum and placed a tremendous administrative burden on teachers and as we saw in Chapter Eight these changes appeared to signal the demise of peace education in English secondary schools.

In 1997 a New Labour government came to power and hopes that the conservative reforms would be at the least halted and at best reversed were dashed when it

became clear that New Labour, under Tony Blair, would be continuing the market orientated education policies introduced under the previous Conservative governments.

There was one area however that appeared to offer encouragement for those interested in the wider peace education curriculum. In 1997 Citizenship education became a compulsory subject in the revised National Curriculum and was launched in 2002.

Emphasis was placed on giving children the skills, values, attitudes and confidence to develop as responsible citizens capable of making a positive, effective contribution to society. Schools were expected to become more aware of and involved in the wider community and required children to take an active role in community based projects.

Importance was given to the use of group work, discussion and debate as was the role of critical thinking and analysis. Teachers could return to teaching controversial issues without being accused of having a political bias.

As we saw from the comparison table in Chapter Eight, Citizenship Education in English secondary schools shared similar aims to and covered virtually all of the content of an accepted peace education curriculum.

10.3 Conclusion.

“Peace education has come a long way, but its history is not very well known.”¹⁰

This Thesis provides a detailed and comprehensive history of the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools since the end of World War 1, giving a greater understanding of the relationships between the various strands of educational philosophy, pedagogy and praxis and how they were fundamental to the development of peace education in English schools

¹⁰ Grossi, V. (2000): Peace Education: An Historical Overview (1843-1939). Peace Education Miniprints No. 101. School of Education, Malmö (Sweden).

from the end of World War 1. It shows how peace education can be embedded in a formal, structured education system and how it is possible for the content and tenets of peace education to be taught without any reference to the 'political' connotation of the phrase.

In this Thesis I have mapped out the evolution of peace education in English secondary schools from the end of World War 1 to 2010. It has been a wide ranging journey that has involved examining the changing nature of English secondary education both in its content and teaching methods and philosophies employed. It has reviewed the influence of the movements for world government and world citizenship on promoting World Studies, the content of which played a major part in encouraging teachers to embrace and teach the tenets of a wider peace education. It has brought to the fore the work of the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examination that in the content of its various social science projects demonstrated that peace education content could find a prominent place in the curriculum subjects at that time.

Regrettably it has also shown that the 'Elephant fable' that Richardson told at the 1981 Atlantic College conference 'Issues in Peace education' has come true. Richardson's point was that "the various lobbies and concerns in the fable - multicultural education, development education, political education for personal relationships, anti-sexist education will benefit – or could and should benefit from the presence and strength of...peace education"¹¹ and that peace education in turn could also benefit from its relationship with the other 'educations'. Richardson went on to outline and point out the dangers of each strand going its own way and the consequences that would occur if they continued to compete for the same scarce funding. He finished his paper by recalling the metaphor with which the paper began, the whole elephant and said;

"Peace Educators can reasonably reckon to contribute a great deal to the ground plan, since arguably they know more about the whole elephant than the others."¹²

Unfortunately Richardson's warning went unheeded and the result was, as we have seen in this Thesis that, slowly, many of the driving forces have fallen away. CEWC, NEF/WEF and World Studies Project have all fallen by the wayside and are shadows of their former selves. However as this Thesis shows the values and beliefs of peace education that were developed

¹¹ Richardson. R. (1984); Culture, Race and Peace. In Reid, C. (eds.) 'Issues in Peace Education. D. Brown and sons. Glamorgan. Wales. p.117

¹² Ibid. p. 122

and promoted by these organisations is still being taught to secondary school children in England.

The term 'peace education' may not be in regular use in English secondary schools but in citizenship education we have a readymade successor. As Shakespeare said;

“What’s in a name? That which we call a rose
By any other name would smell as sweet;”¹³

¹³ William Shakespeare (1564–1616): Romeo and Juliet Act II. Scene II. The Oxford Shakespeare. 1914.

Appendix 1

Concepts and activities: a checklist. From World Studies 8-13: A Teacher's Handbook.

p. 36

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Appendix 2

Peace Education: Guidelines for Primary and Secondary Schools. Avon County Council Education Dept. (1983); County of Avon Public Relations and Publicity Department. Bristol. Section 1, p.8

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Appendix 3

'8-13 years' Group C: A 'spiral' curriculum for a peace education syllabus and a draft proposal for a 'skeleton' syllabus

Reid, C. (ed.) (1984): 'Issues in Peace Education'. D. Brown & Sons, Cowbridge, Wales. pp 111-113

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From: Constructing a Peace Education Programme: Rationale, Aims and Syllabus

Guidelines. In Reid, C. (ed.) (1984): 'Issues in Peace Education'. p. 144

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Appendix 4. From the private papers of Brenda Thomson.

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Appendix 5

Peace Studies in Schools

Lords Sitting of 28 July 1982 Series 5 Vol. 434

<http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/lords/1982/jul/28/peace-studies-in-schools>

HL Deb 28 July 1982 vol. 434 cc233-5233 3.10 p.m.

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Appendix 6

Outline Interview Questionnaire

Peace Education in Secondary Schools 1970 onwards.

Outline Interview Questionnaire:

What was your early training/education and how did that lead you into Peace Education?

You were active in the heyday of PE in the UK, what was the atmosphere like and how were you involved?

PE appeared to come to a crashing halt in the late 1980s/early 90s, why do you think that was?

What have you been doing since, are you still involved in PE, why/why not?

Is there anything I have not asked that you would like to comment on?

Who else would you recommend that I contact?

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UNA-UK papers

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Richardson, Robin: personal papers

Sohal, Balbir: personal papers

The National Archives.

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